The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 21, 1887.

The Week.

LAST month the London *Economist* had two editorial articles on "The United States Treasury," examining the national finances in all branches, including the national-bank currency, the silver question, the revenue surplus, and the public debt. The conclusions reached by it ought to be highly flattering to our national pride. It finds that our circulating medium of all sorts is backed by 54 per cent. of specie, as compared with 30 per cent. in the United Kingdom, and that, even after making allowances for the depreciation of silver, the specie reserve is still somewhat higher than that of the Bank of England, "so that it must be admitted that the convertibility of the paper is placed beyond all question." We may remark parenthetically that the substitution of gold and silver certificates in place of national-bank notes withdrawn has the effect to increase the metallic basis of the paper circulation from 25 per cent. to 75 and 100 per cent respectively. Probably the increase of metallic reserve is even greater than this; the original law requiring the banks to keep a reserve of 25 per cent. against circulation having been long ago repealed, and no other fund to redeem circulation being required except the 5 per cent. fund in the Treasury at Washington. But for every gold certificate issued there must be 100 per cent. of gold deposited and held for its redemption, while for every silver certificate there must be from 75 to 78 per cent. of gold value so deposited and held, looking merely at the bullion value of the standard silver dollar. The fiduciary part of the paper circulation is thus becoming less and less, and the value part more and more, as the substitution goes on. Whether this is upon the whole desirable or not, it is an important although unseen element in the national finances. It has attracted no attention even among those who habitually give thought to this class of questions. Of course, there must come a time when the substitution of specie certificates for bank notes will cease; but so long as it continues, the metallic basis of the total paper circulation is becoming more solid.

The multiplying embarrassments of our national finances at the present time have given birth to much humorous comment both at home and abroad. A nation getting too much revenue, and yet unable to repeal its taxes, is in a worse plight than any country visited and described by the most daring travellers. These embarrassments lead to a remarkable inversion of ideas and phrases. Economy becomes a national vice, and that which is called in other parts of the world a "lightening of the public burdens," is here called an attack upon the industry of the people. Perhaps the most happy thought that the situation has given rise to is found in a letter written a few days ago by the Hon. Samuel J. Randall to the St. Louis *Republican*, criticising the Morrison tariff bill of last year. The spirit which prompted this bill was set forth in all its enormity, says Mr. Randall, by its supporters, who said in substance: "Let us take off one-fifth now. If that does not reduce the revenue, we can take off more. Some time we can *cut to the quick and draw blood*. If 20 per cent. does not reduce the revenue, perhaps 50 will." There it is. In any other part of the world "cutting to the quick and drawing blood" is accomplished by putting on taxes. Here it is accomplished by taking them off. Where, oh where, is the Lemuel Gulliver who shall describe the hardships of the American taxpayer?

Judge Barrett's sentence of Sharp was at once severe enough to comport with the heinousness of his offence, and mild enough to meet whatever claim for clemency may properly be based on age and alleged ill-health. To appreciate fully the importance of this sentence of Sharp to four years in Sing Sing, one must recall the almost hopeless condition of the public mind as to the proper punishment of the offenders when the bribery was disclosed. It is safe to say that ninety-nine persons out of every hundred then supposed that Sharp would get off somehow; and the idea that so rich and powerful a man would ever be sent to the penitentiary seemed absurd. Nobody in New York, probably, was so confident that he would escape punishment as Sharp himself. His lawyers attempted to make it a ground of merit that he had not run away. But there is no reason to believe that Sharp supposed there was anything to run away from. All his life he had found that money purchased immunity, and he doubtless expected that there would be no trouble about getting an acquittal.

Ex-Senator Thurman is quite justified in refusing the use of his name, as a candidate for Governor, to the Democrats of Ohio. If age and infirmity did not constitute sufficient grounds for his attitude, he might properly base it upon the outrageous treatment which he has received from Ohio Democrats in the past. Despite his yielding to the soft-money craze, Mr. Thurman has been one of the ablest and best Democrats in public life since the war, and the shameful way in which he was shoved aside by the gang who seized control of the party organization in Ohio, makes it little short of an insult for them to turn to him for aid in rehabilitating the party, now that they have brought it to such straits.

The *Tribune* publishes an instalment of replies to its circular to Grand Army posts, inquiring whether they favored the Dependent Pension Bill that was vetoed by the President, whether they favor a Service Pension Bill, *i. e.*, a pension to every man who served in the army, and whether they approve of the President's veto of private pension bills. Probably no great significance attaches to the answers, since they are sent in contravention of the orders of the highest authority in the organization. Nevertheless, they show what ideas are afloat in Grand Army circles, just as the remarkable case at Elmira the other day, where the Government was defrauded of $13,700 in one pension claim, shows what sort of rascality may be perpetrated even under existing laws. For example, C. J. McDevitt, Past Department Commander, Abilene, Kan., writes: "I would rather see one hundred men get a pension who do not need it (I will not say who do not deserve it) than to have one poor, old, crippled, broken-down veteran deprived of what he has a right to demand." The Elmira candidate was poor, old, crippled, and broken down, and a sot besides. The question, "what he had a right to demand," was the one raised when the officers of justice were sent in search of him and his pals. What he and all others have a right to demand is exactly what the law gives them. But this, we judge, is not what Mr. McDevitt means, because he says also that not ten posts in the State will vote against a service pension bill, and that he is in favor of such a bill because so many veterans are unable to furnish the proof required by the persons now in charge of the Pension Bureau. A service pension bill would dispense with every kind of proof except enrolment in the army list. It would dispense even with proof of service.

The *Times* has been overhauling the war record of Gen. Tuttle, and finds that he resigned in 1864 under a very black cloud of complicity in an attempt to blackmail a planter who had secured permission to send $100,000 worth of cotton down the Mississippi to New Orleans. The evidence seems to leave no doubt of his guilt, and the performance is entirely consonant with what is known of the man's character in peace. The only thing that makes his record of the slightest importance is the fact that he was elected Commander of the Iowa Department of the Grand Army a few months ago, and is thus one of the most prominent representatives of that organization in the country.

The sources of Cleveland's strength with the people are well illustrated in a series of brief interviews with the magistrates of Davidson County, Tenn., at their meeting as a county court, in Nashville, the other day, published by the *American* of that city. These magistrates come from all parts of the county, and are for the most part leading farmers of their respective towns, so that their views constitute as fair an expression of public opinion as could easily be gained. Excluding the Republicans, forty-three Democrats gave their choice for President, and forty-two of them were for Cleveland, the solitary exception favoring Thurman. The question propounded by the *American* was, "Who is your choice for President, and why?" The answers to the latter clause are peculiarly interesting, and we quote several as fair samples: "Grover Cleveland, because he is honest and upright, and knows his duty, and

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is not afraid to perform it"; "Grover Cleveland, because he has administered to the people at large, as far as I can judge"; "Grover Cleveland, because he is a good man"; "Grover Cleveland, because he is an honest man"; "Grover Cleveland, because he does what he believes correct and stands firm to his pledges"; "Grover Cleveland, because he has the manhood to do what he thinks right."

The *American*, in some editorial comments upon these interviews, pronounces them the highest evidences of public sentiment in that county, as the magistrates are not politicians, but simply good types of the people, and says that "this is a fair exhibit of the public sentiment in Tennessee." Moreover, it declares its belief that similar investigations "would develop exactly this state of feeling in all parts of the South," and it concludes: "That the masses are with Mr. Cleveland as they have been with no man since the days of Jackson and Polk, there is not a doubt, and because he is honest, capable, and fearless." There is little question that the Democratic politicians who have been abusing the President because he did not turn over to them the spoils, failed to appreciate the impression which honesty and fidelity in the discharge of duty make upon the masses of the people. The Democratic politicians may be "down on" the President, but what difference does that make as long as the Democratic people are for him?

Justice to President Cleveland requires from us the statement that the candidate of Tammany Hall for the office of Collector of Internal Revenue in this city was Edward Cahill, and not Mr. Giegerich, the new appointee; also that Mr Giegerich was recommended by leading German-Americans, and that these recommendations were such as the President was justified in regarding as worthy of his entire confidence. We believe it is true, however, that after the Tammany leaders were informed that Cahill could not be appointed, they made a virtue of necessity by joining in the recommendation of Giegerich.

Senator Blair continues to push his absurd and demoralizing "Bill to Promote Mendicancy," and, with the help of Mr. Mayo, succeeds in getting it endorsed from time to time by sundry conventions of one sort or another, like the National Education Convention which met at Chicago last week. Fortunately, the public sentiment of the country is so pronounced against the scheme of Federal aid to Southern schools, since it has been demonstrated that such aid is not needed, that there is no longer any danger of its becoming a law; though, for that matter, if it ever should become a law, there is not the slightest reason to doubt that the Supreme Court would declare it unconstitutional as an interference with the rights of the States. A few Republican politicians and organs, groping wildly for an "issue," still cling to this discredited project, but the preponderance of sentiment is plainly with those who oppose it. The Hartford *Courant* of Saturday contained a most forcible editorial article upon the subject, which shows the gross unconstitutionality of the measure, and declares that, however bad Southern illiteracy may be, "the centralizing remedy proposed will be a greater damage than the evil." The worst effect of the continued discussion of Federal aid as a possibility is its demoralizing effect upon independent effort in the South. The *Texas School Journal*, for example, says that "the sentiment is rapidly gaining ground among sound educational thinkers that we should encourage and stimulate local taxation, instead of looking to the Federal Treasury for funds to support the school system in the South"; and that "we can see no possible effect of agitating the subject, other than that of giving to some communities in which public spirit is decidedly at a low ebb, some pretext for postponing such action as they owe to their schools, through some vague hope that manna will somehow descend upon them from above."

A negro lawyer of this city gives an interesting account in the *Freeman* of his own experiences of color prejudice in New York restaurants. He went into a restaurant in Fulton Market, where several people were eating, and his order was refused on the ground that they were not cooking anything at the time. In a Cedar Street restaurant, "the waiter threw napkin, knife, fork, plate, food, etc., at me as if I were a wild animal and he was afraid of being bitten"; and when he paid his bill the proprietor told him that, although he personally had no objections to serving a negro, his customers didn't like it. He patronized a Broadway restaurant several times until the proprietor told him that his white guests made complaints. Lately he has been on a trip to the South, and, after observing the freedom with which whites and blacks seemed to mingle in work and in conversation on the train and at the stations, he said to a negro friend, "Really, I believe that in some respects there is more color prejudice in the North than in the South." His friend agreed with him, and he was a man entitled to speak with authority upon this subject, for he is the pastor of a church in Georgetown, S. C., and has travelled in the North, where he was "subjected to numberless insults by men who keep hotels and restaurants."

Bishop Paddock of Massachusetts has been making inquisition into the incomes of his clergy, and announced the results of his study in his recent Convention address. The Bishop says that, his object being to know the sum total of each minister's regular income from settled ministerial work, he has taken into account the annual value of rectories where they exist, and the missionary stipends, as well as the salaries paid by parishes. The result of the inquiry is not a flattering showing for a prosperous religious and intellectual community. Reports were received from 136 ministers (out of a total of about 190). The "average" clerical income in Massachusetts proves to be $1,627, but the often uselessness of averages appears from the fact that ninety, or just two-thirds of the number reporting, receive each less than $1,500, while forty-five, or one-third, receive less than $1,000. The average is brought up by the men at the top of the list, of whom twelve receive from $3,000 to "between $9,000 and $10,000." But there are only twenty seven in all who are paid more than $2,000. No one can doubt that these figures reveal a very insufficient provision even of decent living for men who not only by profession are scholars and gentlemen, but also are expected to have wives and families. Without touching upon the religious side of the matter, we must express our entire concurrence with Bishop Paddock's opinion, that the condition which his inquiries have disclosed shows the need of a higher and better public opinion in regard to the dignity of ideal pursuits, and the worthiness and desert of those who devote their lives to them.

We trust the failure of the strike on the Brooklyn Elevated Railroad will bring home to all concerned the lesson, that the time to demand arbitration is before the relation of employer and employed has been broken, because as long as it lasts the two parties are in business together and have claims of some sort on each other. A strike ends all relations, and generally converts the strikers into simple outside loafers, who are engaged in the somewhat ridiculous enterprise of trying to force a man to employ them on their own terms when he does not wish to employ them on any terms. We trust, too, it will bring home to men in the service of railroad companies the fact that business cannot be carried on if each man can give himself leave of absence without notice. The Southwestern strike began over the claim of a workman to go away on "Knights of Labor business" when he pleased, and to stay away as long as he pleased. The trouble in Brooklyn seems to have in part originated in the same way. An engine driver took himself off duty and sent word of it by a boy to the office, and the boy forgot to mention it. But a man who supposes that the business of transportation in a great city can be carried on in this way, is not only not fit to drive a locomotive, but hardly fit to take entire charge of a large peanut stand.

The annual meeting of the International Arbitration Association took place in London last week, under the most discouraging circumstances. That is, there has apparently never been a period in the world's history when so much of the talent of the race was devoted to making preparations for war, and when so many civilized men lived under arms, and when civilized nations seemed so little disposed to settle disputes by arbitration. Nor is there much probability of any change for the better until the world has been fully divided among the great nations and each is content with its boundaries. A good deal was done for peace when Italy was taken out of the list of territories to be fought for by France and Austria. But as long as the future of Holland and Belgium is uncertain, and as long as Turkey is in Europe and the fate of her possessions there undetermined, their huge armies will be kept on foot, no matter what they cost. Unhappily, too, the Franco-German war of

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1870 was settled in a way which added one more disturbing agency to those already existing.

What makes the situation all the more unpromising is, that the questions which threaten to bring about war are not simple questions of property—that is, of the acquisition or loss of territory. They are questions of prestige or self-love. Each nation not simply insists on having this or that piece of territory, but on being thought by other nations able to perform certain military feats. The Germans are in arms, not simply to defend Alsace-Lorraine, but to prevent the world from thinking them incapable of thrashing the French; and the French are in arms and cheering for Boulanger, in order to awe the Germans and look terrible to the English. Between people in this state of mind arbitration is very difficult, because arbitrators have to work on defined claims or pretensions, while the claims and pretensions which keep modern armies on foot are not capable of definition. Trying to arbitrate between Germany and France, for instance, would be like trying to settle a difference of opinion between two men as to which was the more refined, gentlemanly, moral, or religious, or the more deserving of social respect and invitations to dinner, or the better fitted to handle money. Such disputes cannot be settled by third parties.

Mr. Francis Galton, whose studies of the laws of heredity drawn from his laborious collection of family records must be well remembered, has just printed in the *Fortnightly Review* the results of his investigation of the facts concerning what is familiarly called "temper," and particularly the proportions of good and bad-tempered persons in English domestic life, and the heredity of "temper." We cannot follow all the variations of Mr. Galton's research, or reproduce his ingenious calculations, but only note a few results. Perhaps it may be thought surprising that the proportion of good-tempered and bad-tempered persons is almost exactly equal. The first set of data which Mr. Galton tried gave the proportion of the good to the bad-tempered as 48 to 52, the second set as 47 to 53. There is little difference between the two sexes in the frequency of good and bad temper, but that little is in favor of the women, since about 45 men are recorded as good-tempered for every 55 who are bad, and conversely 55 women as good-tempered for 45 who are bad. Of 1,368 children, 321 were good-tempered and 342 were bad, with 705 wanting special characteristics of temper. The good and the bad-tempered were thus equal again—the neutral or medium class being as numerous as the other two combined; results which Mr. Galton says bear emphatic testimony to the correct judgments of his compilers. As to the authority of these compilers or reporters, and the capacity of any observers to deal with the subject, he admits that "accurate discernment and designation of character is almost beyond the reach of any one, but, on the other hand, a rough knowledge and description of its prominent features is easily practicable"; and he rightly thinks that there can be little doubt of the value of "testimony of a member of a family who has seen and observed a person in his unguarded moments and under very varied circumstances for many years."

Mr. Galton is clear upon the important question of the heredity of temper; he says it is "as hereditary as any other quality":

> "I have forty-three cases where both parents are recorded as good-tempered, and twenty-five where they were both bad-tempered. Out of the children of the former, 30 per cent. were good-tempered and 10 per cent. bad; out of the latter, 4 per cent. were good, and 52 per cent. bad-tempered. This is emphatic testimony to the heredity of temper."

And he attempted, with still more success, to answer the converse question: Do good-tempered families of brothers and sisters have, on the whole, good-tempered ancestors, and bad-tempered families bad-tempered ones? A good-tempered family he defines for the purpose as one in which at least two members were good-tempered and none were bad, and a bad-tempered family as one in which at least two members were bad-tempered, whether or not any cases of good temper were said to be associated with them; and, as regards the ancestors, he takes the two parents and the uncles and aunts on both sides as the most trustworthy group. On this Mr. Galton says:

> "I have 46 good-tempered families, with an aggregate of 333 parents, uncles, and aunts; and 71 bad-tempered families, with 633 parents, uncles, and aunts. In the former group, 26 per cent. were good-tempered and 18 bad; in the latter group, 18 were good-tempered and 29 were bad, the remainder being neutral. More briefly, we may say that when the family is good-tempered as above defined, the number of good-tempered parents, uncles, and aunts exceeds that of the bad-tempered in the proportion of three to two; and that when the family is bad-tempered the proportions are exactly reversed."

We need scarcely remark that, as with those of the Commander of the *Cautious Clara*, the bearings of Mr. Galton's observation "lays in the application on it," especially by parents who may suspect themselves of bad temper.

Prof. Tyndall's frantic abuse of Gladstone adds one more to the list of illustrations we have already had recently of the danger to scientific men of venturing into the political arena. Political strife seems to have the same intoxicating and infuriating effect on them that it often seems to have on clergymen, and causes them to indulge in the same wild intemperance of language, and take the same very low view of the motives and character of antagonists. It does much to confirm the view taken by the enemies of Comte of the future of the world if it were governed on the Comtist plan by an advisory council of scientists. The habit of looking on themselves as the only real and disciplined seekers after truth gives them, even in politics and morals, a touch of infallibilist heat and bigotry. There are probably few educated men in England whose opinion on a political question is worth less than Prof. Tyndall's. It would be a shame to let it regulate even the retail apple trade; and yet he evidently thinks so much of it that he would feel justified in sending Gladstone, a politician of fifty years' experience, to jail as a "gamester" for differing with him on one of the most intricate subjects of modern politics.

An esteemed contemporary, called the *Tribune*, with much fulness of information and sentiment, recently addressed a homily to the French nation on "The French Holiday," apropos of the celebration of the anniversary of the taking of the Bastile. Why commemorate that bloody day, the French are asked, and not that on which "the Third Estate assembled in the Tennis-court at Versailles, and made their celebrated vow to defend their rights and liberties as representatives of the people"? The revolution of which the 14th of July was the opening scene "ushered in a period of extermination. It spared neither genius nor virtue. It was a revel of destroying forces." Then follows the detailed historical specification: "It condemned to slaughter Camille Desmoulins, Fouchet, and Brissot—the men of the 14th of July; then Vergniaud and the Girondists; and then Danton," etc. As this résumé of slaughter might be repeated by the same journal with still greater emphasis, two years hence, on the hundredth anniversary of the same day, we venture to recommend some slight changes in the wording, from chronological and other considerations. For Camille Desmoulins was not the first to be slaughtered, but died, with Danton, five months *after* the rest of the victims mentioned; Brissot was not a man of the 14th of July, but, like Vergniaud, a leader of the Girondists, and died with them; and Fouchet is a revolutionary character unknown to French history. There was such a revolutionist as Fouché, who did a great deal of slaughtering, but he was not slaughtered himself, for he survived the Revolution and the Empire, both of which he betrayed, and died in his bed.

The fate which has overtaken the "Old Catholics" in Geneva contains some grains of warning and instruction for the Catholic disciples of Father McGlynn. When the revolt against the Infallibilist decree of the Vatican Council took place in 1873, the enthusiasm of the rebels in Geneva was immense. Father Hyacinthe's lectures were attended by such crowds that the police had to issue tickets for them, and on one occasion issued as many as 32,000. The Government, too, by requiring an oath from the Catholic priests, managed to turn a good many of the Pope's adherents out of their churches and give them to the priests of the new school, and the salaries along with the churches. When Father Hyacinthe went away, however, and got married, the new or old church, whichever one pleases to call it, began to decline rapidly. The congregations died away, and the priests began to desert or seek reconciliation with the Pope. Two of them lately resigned on condition of receiving two years' salary. The churches are empty, and it is reported that two priests of country parishes used of late, in order to have a congregation at mass, to come into Geneva, collect a few friends and take them out by train, paying their expenses. The Government does not know what to do with the empty churches, as the attempt to separate Church and State made in 1880 was defeated by a large popular majority, and it does not like to back out of its war on the Papacy.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 13, to TUESDAY, July 19, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND, at the centennial celebration of the town of Clinton, N. Y., on July 13, responded to the toast, "Our Welcome Guest from the White House," with a brief speech, wherein he said: "That the office of President of the United States does represent the sovereignty of 60,000,000 of people is, to my mind, a statement full of solemnity, for this sovereignty I conceive to be the working-out or enforcement of the divine gift of a man to govern himself, and a manifestation of God's plans concerning the human race. . . . Watch well, then, this high office, the most precious possession of American citizenship. Demand for it the most complete devotion on the part of him to whose custody it may be intrusted, and protect it not less violently from unworthy assaults from without. Thus you will perform a sacred duty to yourselves, and to those who may follow you in the enjoyment of the freest institutions which heaven has ever vouchsafed to man." He subsequently made a visit to his brother, the Rev. William Cleveland, at Forestport, and went on an excursion to the Thousand Islands, and met the country people in a number of villages where he spent portions of his youth. On Saturday, while the special train with the President and his party was running thirty miles an hour on the Black River Railroad, between the villages of Lowville and Glendale, the rod connecting the driving wheels on the locomotive broke. The engineer, William Riley, was killed, and the fireman, Ira Perego, was badly hurt in his successful effort to manage the locomotive after the engineer's death. The train was stopped before any injury occurred to the cars.

Gov. Knott of Kentucky, as Chairman of the Louisville Industrial and Commercial Convention, has united with the authorities of Louisville and the Board of Trade of that city in extending an invitation to President Cleveland to visit Louisville on October 4.

The office of Consul-General and Secretary of Legation at Bogota has been offered to Mr. John G. Walker of Texas, and he has accepted it.

Mr. Allen G. Thurman, in a letter published at Columbus, O., July 14, said that he was "*firmly resolved*" not to accept the nomination for Governor if it should be offered to him by the Democratic Convention.

A State Convention of Prohibitionists met at Des Moines, Ia., July 15, and nominated a State ticket headed by V. G. Farnam for Governor. The resolutions call for a repeal of the "Pharmacy Law," a reduction of railroad fares to two and a half cents a mile, and the extension of the ballot to women.

At a Convention held at Huron, D. T., to further the project of admitting the southern part of the Territory into the Union, these declarations were made July 14: "We are unalterably opposed to admission as a whole. We declare for division on the seventh standard parallel. The Convention affirms the right of the people about to be admitted into the Union to designate their State boundaries, subject to modification by Congress with their consent. We protest against the tyranny of Congress in refusing admission, and appeal to the people of the Union for support."

A civil-service reform bill has been introduced in the New Hampshire Legislature. The only States that yet require appointments in their civil service to be made by competitive examinations are New York and Massachusetts.

The National Education Convention, composed chiefly of public-school superintendents, in session at Chicago, approved the granting of national aid to public education, especially in the South.

Jacob Sharp, who was found guilty of bribing New York Aldermen in 1884 to grant him the franchise of the Broadway Railway, was sentenced on July 14 to four years' hard labor in prison and to pay a fine of $5,000. An application for a temporary stay of proceedings was granted.

Between July 9 and 17 forty-one new cases and five deaths from yellow fever were reported from Key West. The Board of Health published the following statement on the latter date: Total cases to date, 119; convalescent, 13; still sick, 44; new cases since yesterday, 2; discharged from hospital, 30; total deaths, 80.

A cyclone on July 16 blew down two hotels, a church, a number of dwellings, and the *opera-house* at Waupaca, Wis.

On Sunday, July 17, the thermometer at St. Louis registered 107°, at Chicago 102°, at Pittsburgh 101°, at Detroit 100°. At Philadelphia at two o'clock the heat was 102°. This was the warmest day but one in Philadelphia for thirty years. On July 8, 1876, the mercury went one degree higher. At Augusta, Ga., the thermometer registered 104°, and at Wheeling, W. Va., 108. There were many prostrations from heat in the larger cities. The most serious results reported were in Cincinnati. There the temperature was from 100° to 104°, and eighteen fatal cases of prostration were reported.

Information was received at San Francisco July 18 that the volcano of Akuton, on the island of Akuton, one of the Aleutian group, is in a state of eruption. The natives report that eruptions have been almost constant since the middle of May.

The town of Roahn, Indiana, on July 14 was attacked by a cloud of insects, resembling millers, so dense that lights had to be lighted. Business was suspended for a time, and bonfires were built, which drew the insects, and their bodies were soon piled up in great heaps around the fires. A few days before, St. Paul, Minn., had an exceedingly disagreeable visitation of insects, and the sidewalks were reported to be in several places inches deep with them.

Prof. David P. Todd of Amherst College, in charge of the eclipse expedition to Japan, has arrived at Yokohama safely with the outfit furnished him by the Navy Department.

Mr. J. P. C. Kennedy, an aged resident of Washington, who was Superintendent of the Census in 1850, was murdered on a street in that city July 13 by an insane man named Daly.

On July 15, Mr. Alfred B. Hill, Vice-President of the New York Stock Exchange, fell dead a few minutes after announcing from the rostrum the death on the preceding night of Mr. M. E. De Rivas, another member of the Exchange.

On July 19 R. M. T. Hunter died at his home in Essex County, Va. In 1847 he was elected United States Senator from Virginia, and he served until the beginning of the war. He was a prominent candidate for the Democratic Presidential nomination at Charleston in 1860. Uriel Crocker, the oldest publisher in New England, and a member of the old firm of Crocker & Brewster, died July 19.

FOREIGN.

A turbulent day was expected in Paris on the anniversary of the fall of the Bastile, July 14, and German residents were advised to keep in doors. But there were no serious breaches of the peace. Incidents like the following continue to show a considerable degree of Franco-German friction: July 14 a German resident of Caudry, France, wrote to a Mannheim journal that the anti-German feeling was such that he and other Germans narrowly escaped being killed, and that he and his countrymen were insulted in the streets daily. This letter provoked the German *Kreuz-Zeitung* to say, "France must be made to understand that there is a 'thus far and no further' in the matter," and the *Deutches Tageblatt* to publish verses reminding France that the German hand rests upon the sword. It was reported July 15 that Count von Münster, the German Ambassador at Paris, had remonstrated with M. Flourens against the violent attacks on Germany by the French Radical press, especially one article describing the German Embassy as a "nest of reptiles." Lord Lyons, the British Ambassador, also protested.

The bill drawn by Gen. Ferron, French Minister of War, adding to the number of regiments in the French Army and augmenting the strength of the companies of the present regiments, was passed by the Chamber of Deputies July 13.

The French Chamber of Deputies July 18 passed the Experimental Mobilization Bill. Gen. Ferron, Minister of War, explained that only 20,000 men would be employed in the experiment.

In a recent letter to M. Laur, a member of the Chamber of Deputies, thanking him for his friendship, Gen. Boulanger declared that he would do his duty despite the hatred and defection of former friends. It was sufficient for him to remain friendly with those who wish France respected, and who place their country above party intrigues. He himself had but one aim, and that was to proclaim to Frenchmen that they can and must raise their heads, and assume the only attitude becoming a great people. The letter caused a sensation in the Chamber of Deputies, and provoked excited comment.

It has been announced that the new Panama Canal loan will be opened in Paris and New York on July 26.

The deputation sent to inform Prince Ferdinand of his election as Prince of Bulgaria besought him to proceed to Sofia to assume the throne, and to consult the Powers as ruler. The military element at Sofia was reported July 14 to be somewhat turbulent, and to have demanded the resignation of Petroff, the new Minister of War. The Sobranye refused to accept the resignations of the Regents, who tendered them on the ground that their mission was completed as soon as the Sobranye had elected a Prince, and they decided to remain in office pending the action of the Powers respecting the election. On the 15th, Prince Ferdinand received the deputation and said: "If I should follow my heart's impulse, I would hasten to Bulgaria and put myself at the head of the nation. But the Prince elected ruler of Bulgaria must respect treaties. I hope to justify the Porte's confidence and obtain the consent of the Powers, and to regain in time Russia's sympathy, to which Bulgaria owes her freedom." On the 16th the decision of Russia was made known, that while there is no personal objection to Prince Ferdinand as ruler of Bulgaria, Russia declines to accept the decision of the present Sobranye. Germany, Austria, and Italy replied that they would accept any solution of the question which was based on the Berlin Treaty.

In an interview with a newspaper correspondent July 17, Prince Ferdinand is reported to have said that he had not decided whether he would go to St. Petersburg to personally request Russia's recognition of his election to the Bulgarian throne. He would not allow himself to be enticed into taking any course that would be likely further to estrange Russia and Bulgaria. He said he was disappointed that Prince Alexander of Battenberg, the late ruler of Bulgaria, had omitted to congratulate him on his election to the vacant throne. King Milan of Servia, in an interview with the same correspondent, expressed the belief that Russia would never sanction the occupancy of the Bulgarian throne by Prince Ferdinand.

A large number of foreigners owning real estate in the Baltic provinces of Russia have petitioned to become Russian subjects, in order not to forfeit their proprietary rights in consequence of the recent ukase against ownership of land by foreigners. It has been reported from Berlin that Russia has ordered all

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the frontier merchants to dismiss German clerks whom they may have in their employ by September.

There are other incidents which show a certain friction between Russia and Germany. An anti-German pamphlet entitled 'Waiting for War,' purporting to be the diary of a diplomatist, has been issued in St. Petersburg. The Berlin *Post* charges the Czar's Government with covertly giving its assent to attacks on Germany, and it asks: "Ought we to make this an official matter and hold Russia responsible for such publication?"

On July 10 a band of religious fanatics tried to murder the Grand Duchess Elizabeth, the wife of the Grand Duke Constantin, son of the Grand Duke bearing the same name, who is the uncle of the Czar, because the lady, who is a Lutheran, refused to become a member of the Greek Church. A previous attempt to kill her is reported.

The German police are reported to have discovered documents which gave evidence of a Socialist plot to murder Emperor William of Germany while journeying to Gastein on the night of July 16. In consequence of a rumor that slips of paper had been found in several places through which the imperial train would pass, endorsed, "To-night, at about midnight, the Emperor's train passes. Be ready!" a special train was despatched before the Emperor's. The route from Mayence to Darmstadt was lined with police and gendarmes, and both trains passed safely.

The latest report regarding the condition of the Crown Prince of Germany is that his throat affection is being rapidly cured. Dr. Mackenzie thinks that no further operation will be necessary. After visiting Ems, the Crown Prince will go to the Riviera to pass the autumn.

Alfred Krupp, the famous German gunmaker, died at his residence, near Essen, July 15.

The Irish Crimes Bill passed its second reading in the House of Lords July 15, and on the next evening was passed in committee.

The Crimes Bill passed its third reading in the House of Lords July 18. The House of Commons went formally in a body to the House of Lords the next day, where the royal assent was given to the bill, and it was thus made the law of the realm.

The amendment to the Irish Land Bill, that it be rejected, was lost in the House of Commons July 15, and the bill passed its second reading. Lord Randolph Churchill opposed its vital features, and the Government met the Opposition so far as to promise that they would drop the bankruptcy clauses and close the door of ejectment by civil process, which they had left open to the landlords. Notice of 130 amendments had been presented on July 16.

The British Cabinet discussed the amendments to the Land Bill offered by the Liberal-Unionists July 18, and the Marquis of Salisbury informed a Tory meeting at the Carlton Club that the differences between the Liberal-Unionists and the Government regarding the Land Bill had been satisfactorily adjusted, concessions having been made which removed the chief objections that had been entertained by Mr. Chamberlain and his friends.

Mr. Gladstone made occasion on July 18 to write that the Liberals have carried nine-tenths of the beneficial laws on all great subjects. This, he contends, powerfully accredits the Liberal claim to popular support. The Liberals have suffered mainly from their own successes. Many electors are moved more by a sense of grievance than by cordial love of improvement. When their grievance is removed they lapse and again become Conservatives. Hence the Liberals have recruited for the Tories. If the Tories had had their way, there would have been revolution in England long ago. The Unionists are laboring, however honestly and unconsciously, to disunite the English and Irish peoples.

The Parliamentary election in the Basingstoke Division of Hampshire to fill the vacancy caused by the elevation to the peerage of Mr. Booth, Conservative, was held July 19. Mr. Jeffreys, Conservative, was elected, receiving 3,158 votes against 2,426 for Mr. Eve, Liberal, but the Conservative vote shows a falling off of 500 and the Liberal vote a gain of 100, as compared with the election of 1885. In the election for member for the Brixton Division of Lambeth, Mr. Carmarthen (Conservative) received 3,307 votes, and Mr. Hill (Gladstonian) 2,569. At the last election Mr. Baggallay (Conservative) polled 3,300 votes, and Mr. Cookson (Home-Ruler) 1,886. And at the election in the Hornsey Division of Middlesex, Mr. Stephens (Conservative) polled 4,476 votes against 2,488 for Mr. Bottomley (Gladstonian). At the last election at Hornsey, Sir J. McGarel Hogg (Conservative) was returned without opposition; at the last but one, however, the Liberal vote was larger than on Tuesday.

Michael Davitt, in a speech about the unresisted evictions at Coolgraney July 15, complained of the passiveness of the people, who, he said, were able only to shout. He urged resistance in defence of their homesteads.

More evictions at Coolgraney, Ireland, were made July 18. Many spectators were present, including Messrs. Dillon, Redmond, Crilly, Davitt, and Mr. Brennan of Providence, R. I. Twenty policemen and a military guard assisted in the eviction of several tenants. Subsequently a meeting was held, at which Mr. Dillon congratulated the tenants upon the fact that they had the backing of the whole national organization and the support of all civilized peoples. Mr. Brennan, the American, urged unity among Irishmen and obedience to Mr. Parnell and the Irish Parliamentary party. He promised that America would send the "sinews of war" as long as the struggle in Ireland continued, and until victory was achieved

Mr. Redmond, Nationalist member of Parliament, speaking at Coolgraney, July 18, said he deeply respected Mr. Davitt's service, but regretted his speech advising resistance to eviction, which amounted to a charge that was little short of folly against the advice given by the Irish leaders, and a charge of cowardice against the people. The tenants ought not to engage in an unequal struggle against the bayonets of their enemies. Mr. Dillon also on the same day thanked the people of Coolgraney for their admirable adherence to the plan of campaign, but he was unable to refrain from expressing regret at Mr. Davitt's speech. Archbishop Walsh of Dublin is endeavoring to induce the Government to suspend further evictions in Ireland until the Land Bill has been passed by Parliament. He suggests that a conference on the subject be held by the leaders of the various parties.

Mgr. Persico, the Papal Envoy to Ireland, on Sunday dedicated a chapel at Wicklow. He said that since he had been in Ireland he had been inspired with admiration for the people, in whose breasts he believed patriotism and reverence for the Catholic faith were deeply rooted.

Prof. John Tyndall published a statement in London July 14 that he had received numerous letters from all parts of America on the Irish home-rule question, and that they all recommend the utmost resistance to Mr. Gladstone's policy. "Inasmuch," Prof. Tyndall wrote, "as a desperate gamester, miscalled a statesman, has chosen to invoke ignorant foreign opinion against the instructed opinion of his own countrymen, it is worth showing that American opinion is not entirely on his side."

Sir James Fergusson, Parliamentary Secretary for the Foreign Office, reported to the House of Commons July 15 that the Egyptian Convention had not been ratified by Turkey, and that Sir Henry Drummond Wolff, the special envoy having the matter in charge, had been ordered home from Constantinople.

It was reported on July 18 that the Grand Vizier had resigned because of a violent publication inspired by the Sultan, wherein the Grand Vizier, the Cabinet, and the whole administration were reproached in order to excite public indignation against them, and thus cover the Sultan's own responsibility in connection with the Egyptian convention.

A meeting of the International Arbitration Association was held in London July 13, over which Sir Wilfrid Lawson presided. The Secretary's report expressed a hope for the formation of a commission to consider the advisability of creating an Anglo-American arbitration tribunal. Mr. David Dudley Field, in moving approval of a petition to Parliament in favor of the creation of such a tribunal, said that Americans had had enough of war, and that, although England paid dearly for the Geneva arbitration, the result brought more honor than the greatest military victory could have secured.

One hundred members of the House of Commons have formed a committee to endeavor to cheapen the postal and telegraph charges between the mother country and the colonies.

In a despatch from Rome July 15, it was reported that the Pope, conversing with an American Archbishop, recently said: "Dr. McGlynn lost his best opportunity by not coming to Rome while Cardinal Gibbons was here. He would have seen that the Church, by not condemning the Knights of Labor, was the supporter of the many against the feudal system, whether the feudality is represented by slavery, territorial right, or modern capital."

By the explosion of a gunpowder magazine at Massowah on July 11, ten Italian soldiers were killed and seventy injured, and camp property worth $200,000 was destroyed.

The official health report of Santiago de Cuba for May shows that there were 338 cases of smallpox, 55 of which were fatal; 103 cases and 6 deaths of measles and scarlatina; 67 cases and 21 deaths of fever, including yellow fever; in all 1,067 cases and 171 deaths in a population of 40,000. Smallpox continued epidemic through June.

The President of Guatemala on June 29 issued a decree announcing that the Executive had assumed control of the country and suspended the action of the Constitution. The decree was signed by President Barillas and all his Ministers, and their explanation was that the legislative body had violated the Constitution and would ruin the credit of the State.

The latest information about the recent Hawaiian revolution was brought by the steamer which left Honolulu July 5, and arrived at San Francisco July 13. The new Ministry had assumed control, and a new Constitution was to be laid before the King on the day the steamship sailed. On July 4 there was such quiet that the day was peacefully celebrated by American residents. The United States Minister held a reception, which was attended by King Kalakaua and the members of his staff, and a ball was given in the evening. The new Ministry found that all the public funds had been exhausted. In addition to the regular revenue, all the postal savings bank deposits had disappeared, and the loan funds had been used to fill gaps in the revenue. The new Ministry, besides William L. Green, the Prime Minister, consists of Lorrina Thurston, Minister of the Interior, who was born of missionary parents in Honolulu in 1859, and was educated at Columbia College, New York; Godfrey Brown, Minister of Foreign Affairs, who was born in New York, and has been engaged in business in the United States and Honolulu; Clarence W. Ashford, Attorney-General, who was born in Port Hope, Ontario, in 1857, and was educated at Ann Arbor, Mich. Queen Kapiolani showed little concern when she heard of the revolution after she landed in this city from London. She immediately proceeded to San Francisco on her way homeward.

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THE STATE-RIGHTS ISSUE SETTLED.

By far the most striking address brought out by the commencement season of 1887 was that delivered before the Law Alumni of Michigan University by Justice Samuel F. Miller of the United States Supreme Court. It was nothing less than an authoritative presentation, by the man in the United States most competent to speak with authority upon this point, of the important and as yet hardly recognized fact that the ancient State-rights issue in the politics of this country is finally settled.

Justice Miller is just completing his twenty-fifth year of service upon the Supreme bench, having been appointed by Lincoln in July, 1862, and, with the exception of Justice Field, he is the only survivor of that President's appointees to this bench. An original Republican, he has never wavered in his adhesion to the principles of that party, and he is thus, as the senior member of the highest court in length of service, in a peculiar degree the embodiment of the interpretation which that court has placed upon the Constitution during the past quarter of a century. His name will always be associated prominently with this record, from the circumstance that it fell to his lot to prepare a number of the most important decisions upon vital questions which were rendered during this period.

Justice Miller chose for his subject "The Supreme Court of the United States," and, although he did not expressly say so, there would seem to be no doubt that his theme was suggested by the recent death of his associate, the late Justice Woods, and the current discussion as to the filling of the vacancy. He began by tracing the early history of the tribunal, and proceeded to a comprehensive and lucid exposition of its most important decisions, and of their influence upon the development of the Government. The length of the address, which occupied about an hour and a half in the delivery, prevents even a reference in this article to many interesting and significant incidents of our judicial record that were presented. These must be dismissed with the remark that the full text should be read by every one who is interested in public affairs.

Coming down to the fundamental issue of the relations of the Federal Government to the States as settled by the Supreme Court since the close of the war and the adoption of the Constitutional amendments, Justice Miller traces the changes in public sentiment which have been reflected by the decisions of the court. "At the close of the civil war," he says, "there were many very wise and patriotic statesmen who had come to the conclusion that the powers left with the States in the original formation of the Constitution, by which they were enabled to combine and organize into a formidable confederacy for the overthrow of the Government and the destruction of the Union, had been the source of a protracted and terrible war, which was just terminated by the reëstablishment of the general Government in all its original powers. They therefore felt that in the amendments to the Constitution deemed necessary for the reconstruction of this Union (which, if broken, was not very much shattered), these powers of the States should be curtailed in their capacity to bring about another such catastrophe. Many of these men were in Congress when the resolutions for these amendments were adopted and proposed to the States for their ratification. The members of that body undoubtedly differed among themselves as to the effect to be attained and the manner in which it was to be accomplished by these three amendments." The first deliverance by the Supreme Court as to the scope of these amendments was given in what are known as the Louisiana slaughter-house cases. The Louisiana Legislature after the war passed an act regulating the business of slaughtering animals for food in New Orleans, and creating a corporation which was given a monopoly of the business. The New Orleans butchers considered this monopoly an invasion of their personal rights, and brought suit to enjoin the exercise of this authority by the corporation, the case being carried to the Supreme Court upon the ground that the exercise of such power by a State Legislature was forbidden by the Constitutional amendments. The conflicting opinions as to the scope of these amendments and as to the extent to which they had altered the ancient relations of the States to the Federal Government, were reflected in the opinions filed by the judges of the Supreme Court when the cases were decided. The majority, however, and therefore the Court, decided against the theory that the amendments had placed the States in subjection to the Federal Government. Justice Miller quotes the concluding sentences of this decision, which, after speaking of the fact that the civil war disclosed that the true danger to the perpetuity of the Union was in the capacity of the States to organize in resistance to the general Government, said:

> "Unquestionably this has given great force to the argument, and added largely to the number of those who believe in the necessity of a strong national Government. But, however pervading this sentiment, and however it may have contributed to the adoption of the amendments we have been considering, we do not see in those amendments any purpose to destroy the main features of the general system. Under the pressure of all the excited feeling growing out of the war, our statesmen have still believed that the existence of the States with powers for domestic and local government, including the regulation of civil rights—the rights of person and of property—was essential to the perfect working of our complex form of government, though they have thought proper to impose additional limitations on the States, and to confer additional power on that of the nation. But whatever fluctuations may be seen in the history of public opinion on this subject during the period of our national existence, we think it will be found that this court, so far as its functions required, has always held with a steady and an even hand the balance between State and Federal power; and we trust that such may continue to be the history of its relation to that subject so long as it shall have duties to perform which demand of it a construction of the Constitution or any of its parts."

Justice Miller says that, although there were intimations that this opinion would be reviewed and criticised unfavorably in the legislative branches of the Government, no such thing has occurred in the fifteen years which have elapsed since it was delivered, and he holds, quite justifiably, that "public sentiment, as found in the press and in the universal acquiescence which it received, accepted it with great unanimity." He adds these very striking words: "And while the question of the construction of these amendments, and particularly the fourteenth, has often been before the Supreme Court of the United States [notably in the decision declaring the Civil-Rights Act unconstitutional], no attempt to overrule or disregard this elementary decision of the effect of the three new Constitutional amendments upon the relations of the State Governments to the Federal Government has been made; and it may be considered now as settled that, with the exception of the specific provisions in them for the protection of the personal rights of the citizens and people of the United States, and the necessary restrictions upon the power of the States for that purpose, with the additions to the powers of the general Government to enforce those provisions, no substantial change has been made. The necessity of the great powers conceded by the Constitution originally to the Federal Government, and the equal necessity of the autonomy of the States and their power to regulate their domestic affairs, remain as the great features of our complex form of government."

When Justice Woods's death was announced, the Republican organs began to lament that a Democratic President would now have the chance to appoint a State-rights man. Justice Miller's address shows that the State-rights issue is settled, since nobody of any standing anywhere in the country dissents from the interpretation of the relations of the States and the Federal Government laid down by a Supreme Court which has pronounced "absurd" the theory on which the Civil-Rights Act, and all cognate attempts unduly to stretch national authority, were based. "The necessity of the autonomy of the States and their power to regulate their domestic affairs" have been established by a Republican Supreme Court, and there is no longer any issue between the two great parties on this long-disputed question.

THE REAPPEARANCE OF AN OLD BOSS.

MR. A. R. SHEPHERD arrived on Sunday in Washington. The local newspapers, in advance of his coming, urged the citizens to receive him with the honors due the original author of all their prosperity. In this they are likely to receive a large measure of support from many of the present inhabitants. By one of those curious reactions to which public opinion is so liable, the very depravity of the Shepherd government is made to redound to the credit of its principal manager. When people now visit Washington and contrast its finely paved streets and tree-lined avenues with the mud roads and cobble-stone pavements of twenty years ago, they naturally associate the improvement with the name of the master-spirit in the Territorial Government under which it it was begun. Had Shepherd done his work in a reasonable, lawful, and effective manner, he would have taken his place among the large body of painstaking officials who have done their duty and been forgotten. But the very fact that he performed his functions in such a way as to call down universal condemnation and necessitate his legislation out of office, makes him the only man now remembered in connection with his work, and leads men to give him the credit due to others. In view of the fact that his friends, creditors, and

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supporters will leave no stone unturned to award him public honors, and enable him to retrieve his shattered fortunes, it is worth while to inquire whether we ought to reverse the verdict of 1874 by which he was condemned and driven from office.

The now forgotten Territorial Government of 1874 was born of a desire on the part both of Congress and the President to make Washington a capital worthy of the nation. It comprised a Governor, Legislature, and a Board of Public Works. The first-named office has so completely passed into oblivion that few of our readers will remember that it was first filled by Mr. H. D. Cooke. The Legislature, elected principally by freedmen who flocked into Washington at the close of the war, is remembered only as a mob. The only branch which made an enduring name for itself was the Board of Public Works, of which Shepherd was Vice-President from the beginning, becoming President, ex-officio, when he succeeded Mr. Cooke in the office of Governor.

The recklessness with which the Board operated was something which it would be hard to parallel in any civilized country, and which it is impossible for us now to describe in detail. We shall refer only to two cardinal features of its policy, which explain both its failure at the time, and its subsequent success in attracting sympathy. The Government was a friend and patron such as the local press has never seen before or since. It advertised with a profusion which would be scarcely credible were it not authenticated by the records of investigating committees. New journals were established for the purpose of getting a share in the advertising, and, in at least one instance, the bill was paid when the Governor had no evidence (except the statement of the proprietor) that the journal had ever existed. The present tone of the Washington press affords the gratifying assurance that the sentiment of gratitude has not yet vanished from the human breast. The system of letting contracts was the most distinctive and memorable feature of the policy adopted by the Board of Public Works. So childlike was its simplicity that, had it been invented by a board of philosophers, practical men would not yet have forgotten to recall it as an example of the incapacity of that class to deal with public questions. The Board reasoned thus: We know that when work is let out to the lowest bidder, the latter is sure to be some one who cannot do the work honestly at the price he sets, and who expects to make himself good by slighting his job, deceiving or bribing the inspectors, and charging exorbitantly for extra items. Therefore let us have no advertising for bids. Let us ascertain for ourselves what it will cost to do each kind of work in the best manner, buying the best materials and hiring the best workmen at good wages. Let us add to this so liberal a margin of profit that the contractor shall have no temptation to slight his work, and then let us ourselves select true and honest men and give them the contracts at the established rates.

The result of this system was one that men of business sagacity ought to have foreseen. The Board was surrounded by a crowd of men of numerous trades and callings, backed by every kind of influence, all eager for contracts and clamoring for recognition. The true and honest man was the one who could make himself most strongly felt and loudly heard. When he got the contract and left the presence of the Board, his place as petitioner might be taken by a rival armed with evidence to show that he was not the true and honest man the Board had taken him to be. His contract was therefore in danger of being revoked, and the only way to save himself was to commence work under it. So he immediately hired a gang of men to tear up the street he had agreed to improve, and render it impassable. Having "commenced work" he was insured against an arbitrary revocation of his contract, which then became a valuable franchise, readily salable to his less fortunate competitors, and valued according to the scale of prices and the chances of getting the official inspector to judge the work charitably. The original contracts were thus sold out in detail, or "sublet," to the men who offered the most advantageous terms, and thus the work was finally done in the same way as if it had been awarded to the lowest bidder in the first place. Moreover, it paid a contractor better to get more contracts to sell out than it did to do his work, and thus the streets were often kept unfinished for a year or more. To this system was mainly due the failure of the whole plan.

After three years of abuses, a large body of citizens and property-owners and several Congressmen demanded an investigation of the new Government. All the advantages were on the side of the defence. It had possession of the papers necessary to the prosecution; it enlisted the earnest support of President Grant; and it had a jury the majority of which were its own political friends. But the proofs of reckless mismanagement were so irresistible that the investigating committee had to make an adverse report, and Congress had to abolish the Territorial Government and organize a new one. The nomination of Shepherd as a member of the latter was rejected by the Senate with only five dissenting votes.

The state of things with which the new Government was confronted reminds one of the bequests frequently made by profligate monarchs of the dark ages to their successors. The District had incurred, during the brief reign of the Shepherd Government, a debt which, measured per capita, was about double that incurred by the country during the whole civil war. For all this little was to be shown but wreck and ruin. Miles of expensive pavements, laid in districts where there was no travel, were in some districts beginning to decay before being used. In others they had been so broken up by the combined effect of travel and weather as to render the streets in which they were laid impassable. Every kind of imposition had been practised upon the Board of Public Works. Pretended asphalt pavements disintegrated faster than they could be repaired. Long reaches of wooden pavement had been "treated" by patented methods to prevent decay; but they went to ruin as fast as the others. After the immense sums which had been expended in improving the streets, the latter were, taking a general average, no better than before Shepherd had begun his work. A crowd of creditors were clamorous for the money due them from a bankrupt treasury. Contracts had been so loosely drawn and awarded, and had been farmed out in so many ways, that it was difficult to determine the rights and obligations of the various parties to them. There was but one source of relief, and Congress, as in honor bound, came to the rescue by making appropriations for improvements corresponding to the value of the real estate which the general Government owned in the District. Members of the Corps of Engineers were detailed from the army to superintend the whole work of street improvement. The result of twelve years of honest effort is the Washington of to-day.

No doubt many good men are led to take a charitable view of the part which Shepherd acted, from a feeling that his condemnation was based on purely technical grounds, and that his successors have done nothing more than carry out plans which he would have executed had he been left in charge. We have shown how little ground there is for this view; but we hold that, even if we accepted it, every honor awarded to him is a blow at public morality. Before commencing his public career he was an energetic, not to say reckless man of business, who was accumulating a rather precarious fortune by erecting buildings with borrowed money. He entertained a supreme contempt for the slow and routine business methods prescribed by Treasury officials, and when he came into power he conducted the public business in the same adventurous spirit which distinguished his own. We may even concede him the credit of having seen the end from the beginning. We cannot for a moment suppose that a man of sense would have driven his cart into such a slough had he not felt assured that the Congressional Hercules would put a shoulder to the wheel. Now, this is precisely the kind of shrewd political management which the public are too prone to condone. Congress is asked to promote or endorse an innocent-looking scheme, which is to be so managed that continually increasing appropriations are necessary, and thus the Government is entrapped into doing what it would not have done had the whole plan been laid before it. We believe that the liberal policy of Congress towards the District of Columbia during the last ten years needed no such pressure as that of the wreck of 1874 to insure its inception; but even if it did, it was too dearly bought at such a sacrifice of public morality as that involved in an endorsement of the Shepherd régime.

THE PROPOSED CENTRAL AMERICAN FEDERATION.

STEPHENS, in the preface to his 'Incidents of Travel,' referred to the then latest news from Central America, and expressed the belief that the civil wars of which he had been a witness were for ever over, and that the "republic of Central America would now assume her place among the nations." He doubtless had in mind the convention for reorganizing the republic, decreed in 1841, irregularly in session for a year or two, issuing finally in the "Pacto de Chinandega," which from the start was a dead letter, the prelude to

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new and fiercer wars and complete disruption of the confederation. There would seem to be some analogy between the sanguine hopes of Stephens, a half-century ago, and those aroused by the congress of plenipotentiaries from the Central American States which began its work last January. That the issue will be equally disappointing, it would be rash to affirm; but a review of the efforts made during the last sixty years to consolidate the provinces of Central America is not reassuring.

Certainly no convention since 1826 has awakened anything like the enthusiasm and expectation which were evoked by the Congress of Panama. Called at the suggestion of Bolívar himself, it was awaited by many eminent men in Europe and America with sentiments not badly expressed by the Abbé de Pradt, who wrote: "The Congress of Panama will be one of the greatest events of our times, and its effects will be felt to the remotest posterity." It proved to be, however, a ridiculous abortion. The impatient spirit of Bolívar speedily became disgusted with the grandiloquent and impracticable deliverances of the congress, and said that it resembled "the Greek lunatic who wanted to direct from a rock the sailing of ships. Its power will be but a shadow, and its decrees mere counsels." Actual confederation of the five provinces existed, in name, from 1825 to 1839. That period was one of almost ceaseless disorder, of frequent civil wars, of constantly recurring insurrections, of incessant wrangling between rival chiefs, of violence and intrigue. Owing partly to the impossibility of reconciling conflicting interests in a central government, partly to the growing power and ambition of Guatemala, which early aspired after the primacy among the five States, the nominal union fell to the ground in 1839-40, and has never since been reconstructed. The attempts made later to revive it cannot spring from a remembrance of its success—for it had none—but are rather due to a sentiment which the old federation vainly sought to realize—a desire for cutting a greater figure in the world than is possible for five petty and quarrelling States; a vague survival of the dream of universal brotherhood which was a part of the revolutionary spirit of the opening century, together with a real perception of the advantages which would come from a genuine union. The name of Barrios is inseparably connected with the plan of Central American unification, as urged from 1871 to 1885. Bending his first efforts to effect a union by conference and diplomacy, after the failure of his diet of 1876 he came more and more to look to the sword as the means of consolidation, and went to his death in the assault on Chalchuapa, less than two months after his arrogant decree of February 28, 1885, practically appointing himself dictator of Central America.

To the initiative of his successor, President Barillas, was due the latest gathering of delegates from the five republics in session in Guatemala from the 20th of January to the 15th of February of this year. The value of the results arrived at by this Congress has been estimated, for the most part, on the basis of the somewhat effusive representations of the importance of their action made by the plenipotentiaries themselves. A better way is to examine the results at first hand. The diet agreed upon three instruments: a treaty of peace, friendship, and commerce; a treaty relating to extradition, and a consular convention. The first of these alone is of any importance as bearing on the question of federation. Of its thirty-two articles, eleven refer to the relations of the republics to each other, and the rights of citizens of one in the territory of another. Arbitration is made obligatory as a first step in settling international difficulties; the different republics solemnly bind themselves not to interfere in each other's affairs; the independence and territory of each are to be sacred; a citizen of one republic is to have all the rights of a citizen of another under whose jurisdiction he may happen to be, provided he makes a declaration of his desire to have them; a citizen of one republic shall not be subject in another to military service or to forced loans. Article 12 provides that, after September 15, 1890, commerce between the republics, by land or water, shall be entirely free, with the important exception that a product taxed in domestic trade may be equally taxed in foreign trade. Navigation is made wholly free. The legal instruments of one republic are to be valid in every other. Articles 20-23 establish the right of literary property, arrange for postal reciprocity and for uniform telegraph charges. Article 24 proposes, "in order that respect for human life may become a principle of Central American law," the abolition of capital punishment. The remaining articles provide for uniform money, weights and measures, and for a meeting of an international congress every two years to revise treaties and "discuss subjects of general interest"; oblige the different governments to make their policy as uniform as possible, "so as to give them more respectability before all the nations"; set forth the proper steps to be taken in the ratification of the treaty; and express the hope that, by the time of the meeting of the congress in 1890, the obstacles which now exist to a political union of Central America may be removed.

It cannot be doubted that if this treaty were to be ratified and put into execution, it would be of great political and social advantage to a distracted region of our hemisphere, and would tend directly to promote an ultimate union of the Central American republics. But the lack of those countries has never been excellent paper constitutions. Jealous officials and unscrupulous rulers, with an ignorant and hopeless population, have sufficed to bring the finest sentiments and best intentions to nothing. It is altogether likely that they will do so again. It must be remembered that the treaty has not yet been ratified by the respective republics. It may never be. It is already reported that the politicians of Honduras are at blows over it. Even if honestly accepted by all five States, there are such tremendous difficulties in the way of its execution that we think the pæans sung over it in various newspapers are as premature as were those sung over its predecessors of sixty and forty years ago.

THE FRENCH "REPUBLICAN SALOON."

THE French Senate last year appointed a committee of investigation to look into the effects of alcohol on the health and morals and wealth of the French people. But we must observe that when the French speak of "alcohol" they mean spirituous liquors simply. They do not mean beer or cider or light wines. It is therefore into the consumption of brandy, rum, gin, whiskey, and the like that the Senate Committee inquired. The report was presented to the Senate some three weeks ago, with a great speech from M. Claude. It is a large volume of 1,096 pages of close print, with twenty maps and twelve diagrams. It has created a great sensation in France, for it seems to show that Frenchmen are going down the same alcoholic slope which has been exciting so much alarm in Switzerland, in Belgium, in the Scandinavian countries, in England, in Germany, and in the United States. In other words, the French are frightened by the rapid growth of drunkenness in France, and there seems to be a general agreement that something must be done to arrest it.

Of course there has been raised there, in opposition to any meddling with the liquor traffic, the objection which does so much duty here, in the mouths of party demagogues and in the liquor press, that in a democratic country you cannot undertake to interfere with the choice of drinks of a man whom you allow to choose governors and legislators, and pass on amendments to the Constitution. If he is competent to decide who ought to rule the State, he is surely also competent to decide how much spirits he should consume at a sitting. This has been in many countries more or less of a bugbear to temperance advocates, but they are getting over it. They are all beginning to say that we must put up with inconsistency if we mean to save the race from being ruined by alcohol. Even M. Leroy-Beaulieu, who is a strong opponent of meddling legislation, admits, in discussing the Claude report in the *Économiste Français*, that we must in our day reconcile ourselves to the introduction of more and more of what the Germans call the "ethical sentiment" into our systems of taxation; that is, we must tax in order to make people good, as well as to pay the public expenses, although he foresees that moral taxation may be as much abused as sumptuary legislation ever was.

The French case against alcohol, as set forth in the report, closely resembles our own. It increases police expenses; in some towns in France it has made it necessary to double or triple the police force. It increases also the expenses of criminal justice: there were between 1881 and 1885 336,641 prosecutions for drunkenness, or an average of 67,328 a year, to say nothing of offences caused by drunkenness. It fills the hospitals and almshouses with all sorts of victims. From 1861 to 1865, for example, 10 per cent. of the lunatics in the Department asylums were brought there by alcohol. Between 1865 and 1870 20 per cent. were brought through alcohol. In 1876-80, the number of inmates of these asylums nearly doubled, and of these 15 per cent. were due to alcohol. In 1881-5, the number rose from 39,822 to 51,207, more than triple the number between 1861-5, and of these 7,387 were alcoholic, and it must be remembered that the French population has been almost stationary for half a

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century, and that only those lunatics are charged to alcohol who have lost their faculties directly through their own drunkenness. No account is taken of those who lose it through the drunkenness of parents.

In some parts of France, the wine-growing regions of the south and centre, they drink hardly any spirits at all, but in the north and west they drink enormously, and are drinking more and more. If all France drank as these parts drink, France, instead of being seventh in the list of drinking nations, would probably stand at the head. Rouen is the greatest alcoholic place in the country. The average was about four gallons a head in 1884, and to make this average some men there must consume twelve, fifteen, or even twenty gallons of spirits per annum. There was a decree issued after the *Coup d'État* in 1851, forbidding the opening of drinking places (*cabarets*) without a special police permit. This was abolished in 1880 by way of "giving Republican saloons the protection to which they are entitled," as Sheridan Shook says. The effect was very remarkable. Between 1880 and 1885 the number of saloons increased by 40,000. Between 1873 and 1879 it had only increased by 8,000. The progress upwards, too, is now very steady. Every year sees the opportunities of taking a "petit grog" greatly multiplied.

The remedy which finds most favor in France, as in Switzerland and Sweden, is making liquor extremely dear, and diminishing the number of places in which it is sold. If our Prohibitionists would only settle down to this work, they would achieve great results In their attempt to banish liquor utterly from the haunts of men they are pursuing a will o' the wisp.

THE SITUATION IN ENGLAND.

Nothing can well be more variable and more interesting in its variableness than the surface of English politics. It seems to enter on a new and unexpected phase nearly every day. Two months ago the Liberals were plunged in the deepest despondency. The Tories were having everything their own way in Parliament. The support given to them by the Liberal Unionists on the Coercion Bill proved to be unbroken from first to last, and the bitterness and defiance in Chamberlain's and Hartington's and Goschen's speeches towards their old friends were daily deepening. The health of both Gladstone and Parnell, too, was exciting more or less anxiety, and it was confidently expected that the Jubilee ceremonial would have the effect of intensifying the Conservative and anti-Irish feeling in the English constituencies. It was, too, the general impression in Liberal circles in London that the articles in the *Times* on "Parnellism and Crime" had done much to dampen, in the provinces even, Liberal enthusiasm for the Irish cause.

Just at this juncture came the Spalding election, or rather the election for one division of Lincolnshire, an old Tory stronghold, which in fifty years has never sent a Liberal to Parliament. Lord Salisbury had made a peer of the sitting Tory member, and the vacancy had to be filled; and nobody in "society" doubted for a moment that it would be again filled by an old-fashioned Tory. To the astonishment of all England, the Tory candidate was routed, horse, foot, and dragoons. In a greatly increased vote, the Liberal majority was more than double what the Tory majority had been in 1886. This surprise was quickly followed by another. In the Tory constituency of North Paddington the Tory majority was cut down by one-half. Then came the election for the Tory borough of Coventry, where the Tory majority of last year was wiped out and a Liberal was returned.

The effect of the panic this produced in the Conservative ranks has been most curious. The possibility, and even probability, that London has during the past winter been repeating the huge mistake of 1879, about the opinion of the country at large, of course stares them in the face. Accordingly, Lord Randolph Churchill was one of the first to prepare for the coming storm, by throwing out hints that there was something wrong in the composition of the Ministry, by making a savage attack in the House on their Irish Land Bill, and finally by assailing his own creature, Mr. Mathews, the Home Secretary, on account of a police scandal which Mathews refused to investigate. The result has been that Mathews was condemned by a vote of the House, and will probably have to resign, and the Government have had to agree to abandon the provisions of their Land Bill by which a tenant to escape eviction would have to go into bankruptcy, and will probably also provide for that revision of the "judicial rents" which a commission of their own recommended last year, but which they contemptuously rejected in the drafting of the bill. In fact, to sum up, the temper of the Liberal Unionists has become uncertain. It is no longer possible to count on their adhesion, and without their adhesion the Ministry cannot exist. Another defeat such as that sustained in the Mathews incident would probably lead to the resignation of the Cabinet or a dissolution of Parliament.

Another check received by the Government, and a very damaging one, has occurred in the matter of the evacuation of Egypt. Owing to the pressure which France has been exerting during the past year, to induce England to fix a time at which her exclusive occupation of Egypt would cease, Lord Salisbury came to the conclusion that something must be done, but he felt that it must not seem to be done in open deference to France, or in obedience to French dictation. Accordingly a special envoy was despatched to Constantinople early in the spring in the person of Sir Henry Drummond Wolff, a young baronet, whose sole title to the place was his having assisted Lord Randolph Churchill in forming "the party of four" who assiduously blackguarded Mr. Gladstone between 1880 and 1885, and his great need of money. After prolonged negotiations he succeeded in drafting a convention with the Porte under which England was to evacuate Egypt in three years, but was to have permission to occupy it again after that time in conjunction with the Turks in case the state of the country seemed to require it. This was unacceptable to the British public for two reasons. One was, that it recognized in a formal manner the suzerainty of the Porte over Egypt, and seemed to draw it out of the "innocuous desuetude" in which it has lain for fifty years. The other was, that it took the question of evacuating Egypt out of British hands—unnecessarily, too, as it seemed. But the crowning humiliation came when the Sultan, after the convention had been drawn up, refused to sign it. So Wolff has had to be recalled in a sort of disgrace after he has cost the country $135,000.

All these mishaps have put the political atmosphere into a highly electrical condition, in which every "bye election" acts like a clap of thunder. There were two of these on Tuesday, pointing the same way as those of Spalding, Coventry, and North Paddington.

THE FAMILY OF MONTAIGNE.

II.—HIS BROTHERS AND SISTERS.

It has been a disputed point whether Michel was or was not the eldest of his parents' children. The learned "Montaignologues" ("que dirait Montaigne, bon Dieu! d'un pareil mot forgé en son honneur?" cries Sainte-Beuve) Dr. Payen and M. Grün have, it now appears, laid undue weight on Montaigne's own statement when, in relation to his inheriting the malady of stone from his father, he says, "J'étois nay vingt-cinq ans et plus avant la maladie de mon père, le troisième de ses enfants en rang de naissance." M. Malvezin proves unquestionably that Pierre de Montaigne (the father) was married in January, 1528; and as Michel was not born till February, 1533, his father could easily have had two elder children who lived but for a short time, and whose existence left no trace, but nevertheless counted "en rang de naissance." Michel from his earliest childhood was the eldest of the family, which consisted of Michel (1533), Thomas (1534), Pierre (1535), Jeanne (1536), Arnaud (1541), Leonor (1552), Marie (1554), Bertrand (1560); and they were all living when their father died — seventy-three years old—in 1568.

Thomas, who bore the title of Seigneur de Beauregard, has been made known to us by his brother in his letter to his father describing the death-bed of Étienne de La Boétie. He was one of the friends who tenderly watched by him during that memorable week of August, 1563. He was then twenty-nine years old, and he had embraced the new religious opinions of the Reformation, which made many proselytes in his native province of Guienne. The Maréchal de Montluc wrote, "Il n'y à ici enfant de famille qui n'ait voulu taster de cette viande." Étienne de La Boétie, as he lay dying, asked M. de Beauregard if he were willing he should disclose to him something he had on his heart to say to him. "And when," Montaigne says, "my brother had given him assurance, he went on thus: 'I swear to you that of all those who have undertaken the reformation of the Church, I have never thought that there has been one who has entered into it with better zeal, more entire, sincere, and simple affection than you.'" And he continued talking with him at some length, not to dissuade him from combating the imperfections of the Church, but to persuade him not to go to such extremities as to separate himself from his family. "My brother thanked him very much."

The next year Thomas de Montaigne married; but his wife soon died, leaving him childless; and a few years later he married Jacquette d'Arsac, the step-daughter of Étienne de La Boétie, who had stood at his side as he said farewell to his friend. This marriage gave him the title of

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Sieur d'Arsac, by which Montaigne calls him when speaking (I, 30) of his having a piece of his land in Médoc buried under the sand thrown up by the sea: "ses rentes et domaines sont eschangez en pasquages bien maigres." He outlived his second wife and married a third. After the death of his brother Michel, he and his son claimed "la maison noble de Montaigne" against Michel's widow and daughter; but before the suit was decided they both died, and the heirs of Thomas being then only three daughters, there was no ground for a substitution demanded in favor of males as against females.

Pierre de Montaigne was Seigneur de La Brousse. It was he with whom Michel was travelling the day, during the civil wars, when he met "un gentilhomme de bonne façon . . . du party contraire au nostre" (II, 5). M. Malvezin states, we know not on what authority, that he lived quietly as a country gentleman on his estates in Périgord, and that, unlike Michel, he took pleasure "in hearing a hare scream in the teeth of his dogs." He died, unmarried, when about forty years old.

Jeanne de Montaigne, the eldest sister, married at nineteen M. de Lestonnac, a "conseiller." She, like her brother Thomas, became a Protestant, and she brought up her eldest daughter in that faith. But the daughter, after a time, not only returned to the Catholic Church, but was the foundress of a convent.

Arnaud, the next brother (le capitaine Saint-Martin), died, as we have seen, from an accident when a young man, but not so young as the Essays represent him. By a mistake of the printers, probably, his age, which was twenty-eight, is there given as twenty-three. And, since we mention one blunder of this kind, let us remark here another, and a more important one, in a letter from Montaigne to his wife, in which he is made to speak of their loss of a little girl "in the second *year* of her life." It should be the second *month* of her life. There were born to Montaigne six children, all daughters, but no one of them lived more than a few weeks save the second, Leonor, who grew up, married, and had children. The fact that the others but just existed renders somewhat unjustifiable the indignation that has been expressed at Montaigne's phrase (I, 40), "J'en ai perdu en nourrice deux ou trois, sinon sans regret, au moins sans fascherie."

But to return to "le capitaine Saint-Martin." Nothing is known of his youth save that he was educated, like Michel, at the Collège de Guienne; but its famous "principal," André Govéa, who had been Michel's master ("sans comparaison le plus grand principal de France," Montaigne declared, in the art of *acting* as in "toutes aultres parties de sa charge"), had left Bordeaux for the University of Coïmbre before Arnaud de Montaigne entered the College. Among M. Malvezin's documents is one showing that as early as 1537 Govéa's abilities were recognized by the city, and probably especially by Pierre Eyquem, for in that year, on the 24th of April, "en pleine jurade, Pey Ayquem, escuyer, seigneur de Montaigne, soubsmaire" (he was afterwards Mayor), "and the lords of the city, assembled at the sound of the bell, . . . have declared by the organ of the said lord, the sub-mayor, speaking to the sieur de Govéa, Principal of the College of Guienne, that before had been made a contract between the said De Govéa and the city, by which, among other things, the city was bound to obtain from the King our Sire in favor of the said de Govéa letters of naturalization; . . . the letters, dated in the month of January, 1536, signed within, Francis, and sealed with the great seal of green wax, hanging from cords of red and green . . . have been [now] given and delivered by the said sous-maire . . . to the said de Govéa, who les a prinses et acceptées et à iceux [seigneurs] et à ladicte ville randu graces et mercys.'"

When Arnaud de Montaigne was a boy of sixteen, he received from his paternal uncle, the Seigneur de Gaujac, some gift—we know not what, but the record exists of a "donation" to him when an "escholier, estudiant au Collège de Guienne." This uncle, "homme d'église," Montaigne speaks of in the essay "De la ressemblance des enfants aux pères"; and the name of his seigneury connects itself with the very earliest known member of the (collateral) ancestors of Montaigne, Ramon de Gaujac. This Ramon came from the little town of Gaujac in Médoc, and was known by its name, and only so known, when he established himself as a merchant at Bordeaux. He was already successful and rich when he married in 1420; and, dying childless, he made his nephew, the son of his sister, his heir, Ramon Eyquem, the great-grandfather of Michel de Montaigne. It was this Ramon Eyquem who purchased in 1477 "la maison noble de Montaigne"; and it is a curious indication of inaccuracy in Montaigne that he should say (in the essay on Vanity) that the Château de Montaigne is not only the place of his own birth, but "de la plus part de mes ancêtres," since only his father could have been born there. Montaigne's next sentence, too, contains another mistake—"ils y ont mis leur affection et *leur nom*"; the truth being that they took the name of Montaigne from this acquired "seigneurie"; and the name of Eyquem was only dropped by them after the death of Michel de Montaigne's father.

It was precisely the state of things that Montaigne himself eagerly deprecates, saying (I, 46), "It is a wretched custom and of very bad effect in our France, to call a man by the name of his estates and lordship, and the thing in the world which does most to confuse knowledge about families. A younger son of good family having had for his appanage an estate, by the name of which he has been known and honored, cannot well forsake it. Ten years after his death the estate belongs to a stranger who in turn takes its name; judge where we are as to knowledge of these men." That is just "where we are," or where we should be, as to knowledge of the Montaignes, if it were not for the legal papers M. Malvezin has unearthed. But he puts us all right, and even goes so far as to give us much information about the other Montaignes — the earlier Seigneurs de Montaigne—whose line ends in the "honneste home Guilhaume Duboys," who sold the "maison noble" to Ramon Eyquem. The whole of the passage in Montaigne, of which we just quoted a part, is curious in connection with his own ignorance about his own family.

Another phrase of exactly the same nature is found in the Ephemerides—the volume which took the place (as regards "inscriptions") of the family Bible in the Montaigne household, and the discovery of which in 1854 threw light on many disputed points. It is therein written by Montaigne's hand: "This day [June 18] 1568 died Pierre de Montaigne, my father, aged 72 years 3 months [another mistake!—it should be nine months, as, by another entry in the same book, also in Montaigne's handwriting, he is stated to have been born September 29, 1495]. . . . He was buried at Montaigne in the tomb of his ancestors." His "ancestors" must have been for the nonce simply his distant *predecessors;* since both his father and grandfather are known to have been buried at Bordeaux; his grandfather only living six months after buying Montaigne.

Of Montaigne's two younger sisters there is nothing to be told. They both married and both died.

Bertrand de Montaigne, the youngest of all the family, twenty-seven years younger than Michel, was Seigneur de Mattecolom. When he was twenty years old he accompanied Michel on his journey in Germany and Italy; and in one of the Essays (II, 27) Montaigne, writing of the battle-like duels of the day, says that he has "a domestic interest in the matter," and narrates how at Rome his brother was drawn into one of these "rencontres," and thereby got into prison, from which he was delivered "by a very speedy and solemn request from our King." It may be said, in passing, that the M. de Cazalis, who was another of Montaigne's companions on this journey, was probably his brother-in-law. Marie de Montaigne had married, nine months before, Bertrand de Cazalis. Bertrand de Montaigne married, we know, eleven years later; then he disappears from the stage—and it is time for the curtain to drop.

A SAINT OF THE TRENTINO.

TRENT, June, 1887.

IN walking through the Via Lunga, one's attention cannot but be arrested by a house with two circular reliefs and accompanying inscriptions. Having nothing better to do I looked and read, and found to my surprise that in this house, formerly a synagogue, was now the Chapel of St. Simon, who was martyred by evil-minded Jews for the purpose of their Passover in 1475. One relief represented the boy being strangled while his blood was drawn; the other showed his apotheosis. This was the first time in my experience that this legend of the Jews using the blood of a Christian child for their paschal rites had ever assumed so concrete a form, and my curiosity was greatly excited. *Prima facie* the story is, of course, absurd; but there must have been wicked Jews as well as wicked Christians; and at a time when the Jews were generally persecuted it would not be surprising if some of the more superstitious or fanatical occasionally retaliated. I have read the records of a Russian case of this kind where the crime seemed to me satisfactorily proved, although at the same time it is necessary to admit that it was in Russia, with a procedure very different from ours. Going back to an ecclesiastical book-shop, I inquired for an account of the martyrdom of St. Simon of Trent, and in explanation told of the house that I had just seen. A priest who was present, while he gave some references to authorities, said: "'Tis to our great shame that this is still believed." (I may say in parenthesis that I found here, for the moderate sum of five francs, a book the like of which I had been long wanting, and had searched for in vain in several large American libraries: 'Martirologio Romano dato in luce per ordine di Gregorio XIII, . . . aumentato e corretto da Benedetto XIV. Nuova edizione italiana. Torino, 1886.' 4to, pp. 245. It contains a complete list of the saints to the present time.)

Next, it was necessary to go to the Cathedral, a beautiful Romanesque building, and see the tomb of the militant Prince-Bishop, John Hinderbach, where, among other praises, the epitaph reads—

> "Et Divi templum condidit ipse Petri,
> In quo, damnatis Judaeis, Simonis ossa
> Sancta locat,"

not to speak of two pictures in which the baby saint appears. Then to the Church of St. Peter, where the blackened mummy of Saint Simon lies in a glass case on the altar of his chapel, while on the walls are Latin verses and pictures descriptive of the martyrdom, with a fine relief over the door. The Chapel was restored as late as 1885, but seemed generally deserted. After all, if the story be true, St. Simon has more right to his Chapel than many others in like case—the Holy Innocents, for example, who are commemorated even by the English Church; for, although unconsciously, he met his death on account of the

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religion in which he was born. With considerable curiosity as to the origin of the legend, I spent the afternoon in the City Library, where the amiable librarian, Signor Francesco Ambrosi, the author of several interesting and useful books on the history of Trent, soon brought out a number of books, including the Memoranda on the subject of Bishop Hinderbach in the 'Monumenta Ecclesiæ Tridentinæ' (vol. iii, pt. 2, pp. 429-465. Tridenti, 1765), and a manuscript volume containing the original record of the investigation of De Sales, Bishop of Brixen. The case soon became plain.

For many years before the event in question, the Jews were settled in parts of the Trentino, were prosperous, lived on good terms with their neighbors, and had synagogues—in Trent, as it seems, on one of the chief streets. In the spring of 1475, late in Lent, a monk, named Bernardino Tomitano, afterwards beatified, came to preach at Trent, and, finding there no traces of the northern German heresies, took to heart the toleration accorded to the Jews, and told the men of Trent that "if they did not soon expel them, they would be forced to do so by their most infamous actions when they had with their own eyes seen these wretches feed on the flesh of their innocent children and satiate their thirst with Catholic blood" (Blengini, 'Vita del Beato Bernardino Tomitano,' Padova, 1710, p. 109). On Good Friday, March 24, Andrea Cerdo informed the authorities that his son Simon, an infant of two years old, had disappeared and could not be found. Search was made; the body of the child was found in a sewer, near the house of a Jew, and physicians testified that it had been bled to death. The whole town quickly became excited at this speedy fulfilment of Bernardino's prophecies. Many Jews were arrested, and, after the application of torture, most of them confessed the murder, saying that they had twisted a scarf round the boy's throat so that he could not scream, had held his hands and feet, and then drained him of his blood, which they had used in the preparation of the unleavened bread for the Passover.

Those Jews whose confession was thus extorted were put to death in most cruel ways. Some were dragged about the streets at the tails of horses, some were disembowelled or pinched with forceps; others were broken on the wheel or hanged; most were burned at the stake. A few, while asserting their innocence, renounced their faith rather than endure the torments, were baptized, and received Christian names. They were then made to invoke the intercession of the little martyr, and some professed to have received miraculous aid from him in answer to their prayers. Strangely enough, this very testimony was brought forward as an argument for the canonization of the boy Simon. This persecution lasted for weeks until the Jews were driven away from the Trentino. A few of them took refuge at Riva, where in the middle of the next century they were flourishing, and had a printing press, which not only printed many Hebrew books, but was found convenient for publishing the sermons and speeches of the members of the Council of Trent.

Meanwhile, Bishop Hinderbach was recommending his martyr to the neighboring princes and potentates, and sending his portrait to Venice, Verona, and Austria. Matters reached such a pass that on July 23 Pope Sixtus IV. asked the Bishop to stop further proceedings, while he sent a commissary, Bartolommeo Pajarino, the Bishop of Vintimiglia. For a time things went well, but the investigations of the commissary did not have the same result as those of the Prince Bishop. Ugly stories got about of the boy's body being put into the Jewish quarters by ill-disposed Christians. (Probably the child had fallen into the open sewer and been suffocated, as the place where its body was found was near to its own father's house, which was on the edge of the Jewish quarter.) Bishop Hinderbach got much excited, and accused everybody of being bought up by the Jews or influenced by them—the imperial authorities, the Patriarch of Venice, everybody at Verona, the cardinals at Rome, and especially the commissary, whose recall he earnestly demanded. He had much to say of a Jewish plot to poison him, and there is a long story of a priest who cut off his tongue with an erasing-knife rather than confess it. The Bishop was obstinate and a hard fighter, every one else was weary of the dispute, the Pope did not wish to offend him, and consequently in 1478 allowed temporarily and locally the invocation of the child Simon at the altars of Trent. Sixtus IV. afterwards confirmed this by a bull dated the kalends of January, 1481, and the little Simon was thus beatified.

There seems to be no bull or other evidence of the further steps for canonization, and it is doubtful whether it ever really took place. Proceedings of this kind were, however, often very irregular before the bull of Urban VIII. in 1634. Simon's name appears, nevertheless, in the martyrology above spoken of, for March 24, as follows: "At Trent the passion of the boy St. Simon, most cruelly killed by the Jews, who shone afterward by many miracles."

It is interesting to note that the first book printed at Trent was a little pamphlet by Mattia Tiberino, on the complete history of the passion and death of the Blessed Simon. This was printed by Albert Kune of Mayence, a travelling printer who came to Trent in 1476. Subsequently a priest from Vicenza, Leonardo Longo, who had learned the art of printing, established himself in Trent, and printed there in 1481 a pamphlet similar to that of Tiberino, and subsequently, in 1482, the 'Epigrams' of Tiberino on the same subject.

In what is unquestionably *Italia irredenta*, one is naturally interested in the question of the ultimate annexation of the Trentino to Italy. As all the inhabitants feel confident that this will come sooner or later, they engage in no premature agitation, and indulge only in mild literary, historical, and statistical disputes as to the rise and fall of German influence. There is no complication here, as in Istria and Trieste, in consequence of the fact that a third nationality, Slavic, outnumbers both Germans and Italians together. In the Trentino, with the exception of a few scattered villages, the population is thoroughly Italian. As nearly as can be ascertained, out of a population of about 341,000, there are only about 9,000 Germans. In Trent itself Italian is everywhere spoken, and the only German book-shop was a small place on the edge of the town, where one could procure religious pictures, almanacs, and German primers, catechisms, and elementary books. In Botzen—or Bolzano, as the Italians call it—Italian is much heard, especially in one quarter. Exactly where the linguistic frontier is, it is hard to say. Roughly speaking, it follows the boundary of the district, crossing the Adige about half-way between Trent and Botzen, and then running northward so as to include the Val di Sole and Val di Non on the west and the Val di Fiemme on the east. At the time of the Council of Trent, when German influence was strong, we find Angelo Massarello, the Secretary of the Council, in his curious diary, which is preserved in the library of Trent, saying, in a passage omitted in Döllinger's edition, under the date of Saturday, October 11, 1545:

"The said Aviso is a river which they say divides Italy from Germany, and is not very big, but impetuous by reason of coming from the great mountains near here. There is a wooden bridge over it, and near by a fine town called by its name, L'Aviso (Lavis). At this town the Italian speaking finishes, and people begin wholly to speak German, because from Verona and Vicenza to here people spoke partly Italian, partly German, but here the Italian is totally lost."

E. S.

Correspondence.

WOMEN AT CAMBRIDGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to point out one or two inaccuracies in your brief paragraph last week on the position of women in the University of Cambridge.

In the last printed report of Newnham College, there appears the statement that the "Students of Newnham College are allowed to attend the lectures of the following University Professors and Readers and University and College Lecturers," followed by a list of ninety-three gentlemen, including such names as Profs. Skeat and Creighton and Mr. Edmund Gosse. In addition, lectures and individual coaching were given for Newnham by forty-two ladies and gentlemen. Evidently the University has no objections to the "mingling of young men and women in the classes."

The printed "Ordinances of the University of Cambridge" contain, among other regulations referring to the examination of women, the following:

"That female students who have fulfilled the conditions respecting length of residence and standing which members of the University are required to fulfil, be admitted to the Previous Examination and the Tripos Examinations."

This article says nothing about the admission of women to the "General" and the "Special" examinations, the passing of which entitles to the ordinary degree those men who do not aspire to the honors of the Triposes. I find nothing to indicate that women are admitted to these examinations, and I know nothing of any reason for excluding them.

That they are not, however, denied the opportunity for the "ordinary success of the pass examination," and that no fear of an "injurious strain upon their nerves" dominates the University authorities, is shown by the following extract from the "Ordinances" from which I have just quoted:

"That the examiners for a Tripos shall be at liberty to state, if the case be so, that a female student who has failed to satisfy them has, in their opinion, reached a standard equivalent to that required from members of the University for the ordinary B. A. degree."

The result is, that any young woman who feels she has little chance of securing Tripos honors, and who wishes a "pass" certificate, undergoes this severer test for the ordinary reward.

All the certificates (unlike those of the Harvard Annex, which are given by the Cambridge Society), are official University documents, "signed by the Vice-Chancellor, by the authority of the Chancellor, masters, and scholars of said University." As a record of scholarship and rank, then, they are as valuable as the degree would be. They do not, however, confer the privileges of a degree, the exercise of the University suffrage, the right to compete for and hold fellowships, etc. Indeed, I have always been told that degrees are not conferred because, in case they were, there is nothing in English law to prevent any woman who passes the necessary examinations with sufficient distinction from securing and enjoying those rewards of her scholarship now enjoyed by men under such circumstances. An Oxford lady was mentioned to me by [illegible] who, with the colle-

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sion of her father—a professor—wrote the papers of a competitive examination for scholarships in an Oxford college. Her papers were returned by the examiners, who were ignorant of her identity, as the most successful. It was stated that there was nothing to prevent her claiming the scholarship and even the right of residence in the college, if she cared to push her claims so far.

The University library does not lend books to any undergraduates, and is open to them for study only during three afternoon hours five days in the week. Consequently, all students depend chiefly upon the libraries of their own colleges—Newnham and Girton students among the rest. Women students attend the lectures in the Cavendish Laboratory. Newnham and Girton each have a chemical laboratory, and share with each other in the facilities afforded by the Balfour Laboratory of Biology. H.

JULY 16, 1887.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Those who maintain that the splendid successes which some women have won at Cambridge this year, without detriment to their health, give ground for thinking that it would be safe to open the examination for pass-degrees to all women, are not guilty of the bad reasoning that you impute to them. They do not say that the same women who are not hurt by hard examinations would not be hurt by easier ones—it would be silly to waste time in saying anything so self-evident. Their argument, put in easy terms, is this: The severest tests which examiners can be found willing to put upon any men, have proved to be not too hard for some women. It is probable that there exist other women to whose mental and physical powers the next hardest kind of examination is pretty exactly adapted, and it is also probable that some of these will be the very women who attend at Girton and Newnham and do not go in for honors. College students in general are a picked class: it is not every hedgerow maiden who undertakes even the Cambridge and Oxford local examinations; and it would be a very queer break in the usual working of the probability curve if there were a few young women who were equal to the very hardest work that is offered to young men, and none who were equal to the next hardest.

This is not an absolutely conclusive argument, but it is reasoning of quite as good a sort as can usually be got at in practical affairs. It is always easy to maintain that nothing proves anything. This is a poor blind world at best, and very few of its transactions can be carried on by deductive logic. The best one can do is to treasure up and try to profit by whatever best finger-posts can be found that seem to point towards the roads of wisdom. L.

POVERTY AND ITS ALLEVIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent speech made at an anti-poverty meeting, there was made mention of a poor widow who was found making shirts at forty-five cents a dozen. That the poorer class of sewing women are shockingly underpaid is no new discovery, nor that there is great need of a remedy for such a state of things. The vital question is, whether the so-called Anti-Poverty men, or others, are most likely to find this remedy.

The land confiscation scheme of these theorizers is, of course, as futile as it is dishonest. If seriously attempted, it would lead to a social convulsion in which numbers would perish by actual starvation. The business system by which immense masses of non-agricultural workers are supported in comfort, is very intricate, and, once deranged, could not again be got into working order till after great loss of life by famine had resulted. As a single example, no one would build, and what would become of the men in all the branches of the building trades, with absolutely no work and no prospect of any for an indefinite time?

That the labor of the poorer class of sewing women is underpaid arises largely from the overcrowding of great cities, in which large numbers of men find work, and, of those who marry and have families, a certain portion die leaving their widows quite destitute. Then at once among these unfortunates commences a desperate struggle for existence; pay, however insufficient, must be accepted, with starvation as its alternative. The trouble is that they are where they are not needed, and the remedy consists in removing them to where they are. That this is entirely practicable, with immense benefit, has been proved by the work of those societies who have occupied themselves with this undertaking.

The "Children's Aid Society" of Philadelphia is doing it upon quite a large scale, limited only by its financial means, the opportunity being apparently almost unlimited. The last report of the Society says on this point:

"Another branch of the work is the care given to keep mother and child together in cases where poverty or disgrace would suggest a separation. During the year, 302 were placed at service, each mother taking her child with her. This work has been found possible by reason of the great demand in country neighborhoods for unskilled household labor. *In spring and summer it has not been possible to fill the applications received; and any destitute mother, however ignorant or inefficient, is sure of a situation if she chooses to accept it.*"

The lines that I have italicized speak volumes. Let it be also considered what a difference there is in the prospects of the children growing up in the healthy country instead of the foul slums of a city.

As to the reception and the care extended to these waifs, the report says:

"The small weekly sum paid for the children's board is seldom proportionate to the care and affection bestowed on them. Frequently these little guests are objects of interest to the whole neighborhood, and, in ten cases, such children were tenderly nursed through severe attacks of illness by members of the households having care of them."

These last remarks relate more especially to the cases in which children are boarded out without their mothers, but they serve to show the spirit in which those who are sent to the country by the Society are met.

It does not seem necessary to draw a comparison between those who are engaged in this sort of work and those who descant on poverty before enthusiastic audiences, suggesting, as the true remedy, a general system of spoliation, and winding up by sending the hat round for contributions. But if we can judge by the relative amount of space and attention given to each by the daily press, the spoliation system should be by far the more valuable of the two. A large part of the success of all demagogues depends upon the gratuitous advertising done for them by the newspapers. M. C. L.

MRS. MALAPROP NOT DEAD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is delightful to find our old friend, Mrs. Malaprop, in full life and vigor, and at present residing in Boston. A few days ago she informed the readers of one of the most "cultured" of the newspapers of that city concerning a wedding-feast soon to be held, and assured them that the family intended "to make it a perfect epithalamium"—from the desire to celebrate not only their daughter's nuptials, but her recovery from illness.

This evening I recognize with pleasure her hand in a copy of verses in the same journal, which assert that "love and woe are there incarnadined"—that is, in "the heaving sea." It is evidently impossible for her quite to "illiterate" Shakspere from her memory. She used to quote "Hamlet" fluently, I remember; now it is "Macbeth": but it is a pity she forgets her own wisdom, that "these violent memories don't become a young woman." * *

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co. have in preparation a 'Guide to Southern California,' by Dr. Walter Lindley; 'Weather: A Popular Exposition of the Nature of Weather Changes from Day to Day,' by the Hon. Ralph Abercromby; 'Evolution in its Relation to Religious Thought,' by Prof. Joseph Le Conte; 'Our Heredity from God: Lectures on Evolution,' by the Rev. E. P. Powell; 'The Education of Man,' by Friedrich Froebel; 'The Lawyer, the Statesman, and the Soldier,' by George S. Boutwell; 'The Natural Resources of the United States,' by J. H. Patton; and these novels—'The Romance of a Canoness,' from the German of Paul Heyse; 'Thraldom,' by Julian Sturgis; and 'Red Spider,' by S. Baring-Gould.

Macmillan & Co. will publish on July 29 'Romantic Love and Personal Beauty: Their Development, Causal Relations, Historic and National Peculiarities,' by Henry T. Finck. There will be two issues—a London edition in two volumes, and a one-volume American edition in somewhat smaller type. A German translation is already in preparation. The object of the book is to trace the evolution of human beauty in all its details, under the influence of the four chief sources of beauty—Crossing, Hygiene, Mental Culture, and Romantic Love. The author sides with A. R. Wallace in holding, against Darwin, that the beauty of animals can be accounted for by *natural* selection, but endeavors to show that in human beauty more is due to *sexual* selection, especially since the birth of Romantic Love, about six hundred years ago. The book might also be described as a history of courtship, showing the evil results of Oriental and European chaperonage in retarding the civilizing advent of pre-matrimonial love.

'Bodyke: A Chapter in the History of Irish Landlordism,' by Henry Norman, just issued in England by T. Fisher Unwin, will have the American imprint of the Putnams. It consists principally of Mr. Norman's letters to the *Pall Mall Gazette* as special correspondent during the late evictions at Bodyke; but new chapters have been added which give the work both a permanent historical value, and an obvious effectiveness as a Gladstonian weapon. It is illustrated by eight sketches from instantaneous photographs by the author.

Dr. Daniel G. Brinton, Professor of American Archæology and Linguistics in the University of Pennsylvania, has in press a volume entitled 'Ancient Nahuatl Poetry,' containing a number of songs in the Aztec or Nahuatl language, with translations and notes. Most of these were composed before the Spanish conquest of Mexico.

Mr. A. L. Bancroft having sold to Mr. H. H. Bancroft his half interest in the corporation of A. L. Bancroft & Co., this concern will during the coming year maintain its name and business only in connection with its Music Department. Mr. Bancroft himself may possibly, a twelvemonth hence, resume the general business he now relinquishes.

Mr. Lowell's Chicago address did not fall on such unliterary ears as the papers would have us suppose, and a reply to it has been published, a

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small volume, 'Richard the Third and the Primrose Criticism' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co., 1887), in which the author takes up Shakspere's cause as if it were a very grievous thing for him to be deprived of the authorship of this play. The first part essays to "pulperize" Mr. Lowell by telling him how many men in the past have not held the same view, and detailing a few facts known to the merest dabbler in the history of the editions. It is a most unscholarly attack, and, either through ignorance or by design, suppresses the whole problem of the various hands concerned in the historical plays, while its style and the tone of its reflections upon Mr. Lowell are those of the literary "shyster." Its argument is made up about equally of insult and of smatterings of the commonest Shakspere knowledge, and the ignorance displayed in regard to the real matter in dispute is the more amusing because the author is utterly unaware of his inefficiency. The second and third parts of the book, which give some passages from the sources of the play, and some account of how great actors have played it, are without novelty, but also without the foolish and contumelious self-sufficiency which gives to the earlier portion the attraction of unconscious comedy.

A new volume takes its place on our table, among the books that are no books, in the first issue of 'Murphy's Consolidated Business Directory of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore' (Trenton, N. J.: The John L. Murphy Publishing Co.). Our mention of this work would naturally stop with the title, though we ought to add that it contains a Manufacturers' Register for the whole United States, the four cities just named excluded; that it is extremely well printed; and that our slight tests of it have shown accuracy in the compilation. We may, however, remark a social indication of some significance. Under the head of Laundries, those in New York are divided into Chinese and non-Chinese, the former being listed purely by addresses, without names. By this means, one sees at a glance that the Chinese establishments fill three and a half columns, and form something more than half of the whole. In Boston the Chinese names are duly given in their alphabetical place, and fill two columns out of two and a quarter. In Baltimore they fill one and a quarter columns out of one and a half. In Philadelphia, on the other hand, not a Chinese house is mentioned in this Directory, though we can hardly believe that none is to be found in that city.

The July number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* possesses a very varied table of contents. Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" are this time concerned with Convers, Willis, and Deane in particular, touching in the name last mentioned the family of the editor of the *Register*. Judge William A. Richardson furnishes a list of Harvard College alumni who have held the highest executive, legislative, diplomatic, and judicial stations, colonial, State, and national; and college presidencies. It is a very distinguished list; but the number, 471, even allowing for possible omissions (and we can supply one), seems small, especially when the earliest name on the list—George Downing—dates back to 1642. The pedigree of Ward of Suffolk and America (which includes Nathaniel Ward of Ipswich, Mass.), and the descendants of Edmund Weston of Duxbury, Mass., for five generations, are other matters of interest.

In the last *Bollettino*, for June 30, of the National Central Library in Florence, we find statistical tables of the publications of the Peninsula for 1886, from which it appears that 10,381 were in Italian, 201 in Latin, 101 in French, 23 in English, 15 in German, 5 in Spanish, and 4 in Greek and Armenian respectively. Not a single French, English, or German novel was reproduced in its own tongue; but 117 French novels (out of 211 French works) were translated into Italian, and only 8 novels from all other languages combined. In all, 335 foreign works were translated, the German following the French at a long interval with 42, and preceding the Latin (34), English (24), Greek (13), Spanish and Russian (4 each), Danish, Chinese, and Hindu (1 each).

Prof. Willard Fiske has about half prepared his bibliographical notice of Petrarch's 'De Remediis,' for which an unexpected amount of new material—particularly from Germany, Hungary, and Spain—has turned up, showing the popularity of these dialogues to have been a striking episode in literary history. Almost ready to print are two opusculi, one being a collection of two prose and three poetical inedited Icelandic versions of the Petrarch-Boccaccio 'Griselda,' none older than the seventeenth century; the other, an Icelandic rendering of Petrarch's 'Seven Penitential Psalms,' discovered last summer by Prof. Fiske in the Arna-Magnæan collection of MSS. at Copenhagen. It closely follows in time the Danish version of 1593. These two little pamphlets will as prettily unite the two main bibliographical passions of Prof. Fiske as Heine's poem unites the pine and the palm.

The *Gazette Archéologique*, founded by MM. J. de Witte and Fr. Lenormant, and recently edited by MM. J. de Witte and Robert de Lasteyrie, Professor of Archæology at the École des Chartes, is hereafter to be published under the supervision of M. Louis de Ronchaud, director of the Musées Nationaux and of the École du Louvre. The new editors are to be MM. E. Babelon and E. Molinier, both well known in what may be called artistic archæology. The sub title is also to be changed from "Recueil de monuments de l'antiquité et du moyen âge" to "Revue des musées nationaux."

M. Pierre de Nolhac is preparing for *Les Lettres et les Arts* a series of articles upon the palace of Versailles and the Trianons, to be abundantly and luxuriously illustrated. An 18mo volume upon the same subject, by M. Paul Bosq, is announced by Renouard.

Quantin is now publishing in weekly parts 'Les Environs de Paris.' The text is by M. Louis Barron, and the illustrations, of which there are to be 500, are by Fraipont. The work will consist of twenty-five livraisons, and, when completed, will make a large octavo volume.

Prof. Paul Passy of the Normal School of Paris has just published, as No. 26 of the Papers of the *Musée Pedagogique*, a report of the Philological Congress held in Stockholm in the summer of 1886. He was the official representative of France sent by the Minister of Education, just as he had been sent before to the United States and to Iceland. The Philological Congress of the North is a recent creation, due mainly to the efforts of Madvig and Wimmer, and is intended to be both a scientific and a social reunion of the philologists of Scandinavian countries. The first Congress met in Copenhagen in 1876, the second at Christiania in 1881, and the third as stated above. There were 235 members—99 Swedes, 56 Norwegians, 66 Danes, 3 Icelanders and 5 Finlanders, and 6 "foreigners," M. Passy being the only Frenchman. Its session lasted for four days, and in its various sections it discussed many interesting philological subjects. The Universities of Upsala and Lund, Christiania and Copenhagen, Frederickstadt in Norway, and the high schools and educational boards of all Scandinavia were fully represented, while the Bishop of Wisby and other great dignitaries took an active part in the practical questions discussed with great zeal. M. Passy is an ardent advocate of Phonetics, and much of his report is taken up with an account of the urgent pressure put upon the Congress, by those who share his zeal on this subject, to secure some endorsement of the plans of the phonetic teachers. He says candidly that the majority treated the subject with a sort of lofty indifference, admitting that there might be something in it; but he contends that his side had all the arguments, if the other side had all the votes.

The Deerfield Summer School of History and Romance (July 13–August 27) promises plenty of entertainment. Mr. Cable has already been heard on "Fiction as a Vehicle for Truth," and Mr. W. W. Newell on "The Study of Folk-Lore." Prof. J. K. Hosmer is to follow with his "Sir Harry Vane"; Mr. Justin Winsor, with "Benedict Arnold's Treason"; Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, with "Russian Novelists and Count Tolstoi"; Mr. Charles Dudley Warner, with an essay on "Education"; Miss Alice C. Fletcher, with "The Indian Folk-Lore of America"; Prof. G. Stanley Hall, with "Psychic Research, or Thought Transference." And there are yet other papers, by men and women, that we have not space to enumerate.

It is historic truth to say that such a union of the two sexes in a public manner we owe to the special liberalizing of the American mind caused by the anti slavery movement and by the woman's-rights movement. This latter agitation is to celebrate its fortieth anniversary during the coming year at Washington, from March 25 to April 1. The convention will take the name of the International Council of Women, and its topics will not be confined to the political aspect of the elevation of woman, though it is summoned under the auspices of the National Woman Suffrage Association.

— Prof. Clark Murray calls attention in the July *Macmillan's* to the revival of the study of Berkeley, which, beginning with Prof. Ferrier's Essays, some forty years ago, is still continued by the researches and comments of Prof. Fraser, and has awakened new interest on the Continent in the works of the great idealist in English metaphysics. Prof. Murray's sketch is almost entirely biographical, and presents the three great enthusiasms of the philosopher: first for his metaphysical discovery, secondly for the Bermuda University for the Christianization of the New World, and thirdly for Tar-Water, as if they were the three stages of his life—as in a sense they were; but the essay gradually becomes altogether absorbed in the Bishop's personal character, and ends with an eloquent tribute to its charm and dignity—the beauty of virtue—in a corrupt and worldly age. Mr. H. D. Traill, in this same number, takes Mr. Freeman's recent sneer, that criticism on English literature is nowadays often only another name for "chatter about Shelley," as the text for a light and not badly-managed dialogue between a resident and a non-resident graduate of Oxford upon the usefulness of Chairs of Language and Literature at the University. There is a strong local tone in the article, but its protest against the excessive trifling with details and nonentities, which is a quality of literary criticism at present, and against which Mr. Freeman directed his remark, is one to be appreciated more widely and to be supported whenever there is opportunity. This time-wasting elaboration is an invasion of German indiscriminateness, and a sterile application of scientific method where it does not belong; it turns biographies into encyclopædias, and substitutes industry for taste as the chief qualification for the critical office. It is the death sentence, practically, of the æsthetic school of criticism in a true sense—that is, the school of those who have the eyes to see; and degrades criticism into a department of history. But Mr. Traill's attack is only a light paper pellet.

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—Much profit and some entertainment is to be derived from a comparison of two of the recent publications of the American Economic Association. One of them, by Dr. Henry C. Adams, is entitled the "Relation of the State to Industrial Action." The other is an "Historical Sketch of the Finances of Pennsylvania," by T. K. Worthington, with an introduction by the well-known socialist, Dr. Ely. Dr. Adams's essay is of a purely speculative character. He informs us that there are three classes of industries, in the first of which an increase of capital brings a proportionate increase of product, in the second of which the ratio of product to capital diminishes as capital increases, while in the third every additional investment is followed by an enhanced rate of profit. Railroad stockholders will be astonished to learn that their investments have this desirable fecundity, while farmers must bear in mind that if they increase their capital they will diminish their rate of profit. One might suppose that there could not be too much capital endowed with the property of increasing with the speed of a geometrical ratio, but the author declares that we have twice as much railroad property in this country as we need. We find it difficult to share the satisfaction with which he announces his belief that this analysis renders a service of no little importance to English economy. Apparently, Dr. Adams agrees with Mr. George in thinking that everything of the nature of rent ought to be confiscated by the State. He lays it down that industrial enterprises under the control of our State legislatures would be conducted upon the principle of rendering the most efficient service at the least possible cost.

—Turning to the essay on the Finances of Pennsylvania, we find an extraordinarily apt, although apparently unintentional, refutation of Dr. Adams's theories. Mr. Worthington has investigated with much industry the history of the attempts of the State of Pennsylvania to relieve her subjects of the burden of investing their own capital. He shows us how the visionary schemes of theorists have worked when applied in practice. In Pennsylvania, if anywhere, we might expect that "internal improvements," even under State control, would have been productive. As a matter of fact, after expending nearly ninety million dollars and getting back in gross revenue about twenty-five million, the State was very glad to get rid of its property in 1858 for eleven million dollars, payable in the bonds of the purchasers. As the average net revenue from 1845 to 1855 had been less than $132,000 a year, it would have been for the advantage of the State to sell the public works for even less than one-sixth of their cost. The interest upon the debt contracted for the construction of these works had increased to over $2,000,000 yearly, a disgraceful default had been made in its payment, and, in the words of the author, "there is every reason to believe that the State works in Pennsylvania, during the last sixteen years of their history, were maintained as an instrument of political corruption." Nothing could be more instructive than Mr. Worthington's account of these transactions, and it is hard to say whether the facts that he presents, or the extracts from the speeches and messages of the public men of the time, are more telling. It is not surprising that Dr. Ely's introduction to an essay in which his pet theories come into most ruinous collision with hard facts, should be of a lugubrious character. He explains the failure of the State as due to its ignorance of proper methods of construction and management, to the absence of fixed principle in public authorities, to "the rise of private corporations and the ascendancy of the Manchester doctrine of do-nothingism," and to political corruption. Apparently he supposes that all these causes have ceased to operate in modern times.

—The popularity of Virgil during the Middle Ages and in more recent times is well known, thanks to Prof. Comparetti's charming book, and it is pleasant to learn that the memory of at least one other great Roman poet is still cherished among the Italian people. The poet to whom we refer is Ovid, and the traditions concerning him have been collected by A. De Nino into a little book entitled 'Ovidio nella Tradizione Popolare di Sulmona' (Casalbordino, 1886. 16mo, pp. vii, 63). Among the people, Ovid (in the dialect of the Abruzzi '*Viddie*) enjoys the reputation of a great magician, merchant, prophet, preacher, saint, and even paladin. In the capacity of the first (evidently a confusion with the Virgil legend), he guards the treasures supposed to be concealed in his villa, and many are the stories which the peasants tell of vain efforts to carry them off on the eve of the Annunciation. Ovid's rôle as merchant is connected with his journey to Athens and afterwards in Asia, and the people explain the *gutta cavat lapidem* by an observation of the poet on one of his journeys. The preaching of the poet is connected with a pulpit of curious workmanship which formerly stood in the church *della Tomba* in Sulmona. Like Virgil, Ovid is believed to have announced the coming of Christ. The poet is said to have been desirous of discovering the origin of God, and to have been converted by seeing a man (some say an apostle, or St. Joseph) dipping water with a little shell from the sea into a ditch. The same story, it will be remembered, is told of St. Augustine and his reflections on the Trinity. Finally, Ovid is said to have been a doughty warrior, and is associated in the popular fancy with the peers of Charlemagne. Signor De Nino has been able to collect many local traditions referring to Ovid, whose memory is often connected with that of Cicero (*Ciciarone d'Arpino*). It is interesting to find that the poet was remembered even in the coinage of his country. In the latter part of the fourteenth century Sulmona received the privilege of the mint, and struck silver money with the legend, R. KROLUS. T. (Rex Carolus tertius, *i. e.*, Charles of Durazzo, King of Naples), and in the middle the initials S. M. P. E., of the well-known *Sulmo mihi patria est* ('Tristia,' iv, 10). The municipality in the fifteenth century also employed the same motto on its seal, together with the bust of the poet.

—Another volume of the unpublished writings of Victor Hugo appeared early in June. It is neither drama nor verse, like its predecessors, 'Le Théâtre en liberté' and 'Le Fin de Satan,' but very good prose, and not as Hugoish as might have been expected. 'Choses vues' (Paris: Hetzel-Quantin; Boston: Schoenhof) is a collection of fragments, sometimes only a few lines in length, sometimes ten or twelve pages, written at various dates between 1838 and 1875. It is composed of personal recollections and conversations (those with Louis-Philippe, Béranger, and Villemain being very well worth reading and extremely curious as studies of the writer); of notes on events of the day, "L'Émeute du 12 mai 1838," "Les Funérailles de Napoléon," "La Mort du duc d'Orléans," "La Fuite de Louis-Philippe"; of narratives, sometimes very striking and dramatic, like the "Procès Teste et Cubières," or the judgment by the *proscrits* of Jersey in 1853 of "L'Espion Hubert." By the side of what is worth preserving there is much waste material, and, even in the best chapters, great need of careful revision and omission. "Choses vues? peut-être," says one of the clever Paris journalists, M. André Hallays of the *Débats*, "vues, mais non regardées; entendues, mais non écoutées." This is a fine and delicate criticism of the book, in which the author sees and hears as a poet, with the imagination, but expresses his impressions too often before they have been condensed and purified of their petty and personal elements by the flame of poetic inspiration. It is also true that in Victor Hugo's hands realities change and become unreal and even false, and that those whose actions and words he reports take on his own attitudes and language, and think and feel according to the laws which he himself submits to. This is so true that he sometimes seems to perceive it, and seeks to excuse it by saying that he is not repeating literally the words of those whose conversation he reports. A translation of this collection has just been published by Harper & Brothers.

— Five issues supplementary to the thirteenth edition of 'Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt), advance the work well into the letter F. A large part of the addenda to previous articles have reference to censuses which have been taken since the main work began to appear, or to scientific researches and political occurrences in the same period, as in the case of Africa, Asia, Australia, etc. In the latter category belong such fresh articles as Bacninh and German East African Company, and such continuations to date as Bulgaria (since 1882), Khartum, Elsass-Lothringen, etc. Noteworthy is the new discourse about emigration, in which it is correctly laid down that the state of this country has more influence on the movement at any given time than the state of Europe, and in which it is pointed out that Russia and Belgium gain by immigration more than they lose by emigration. France still ranks low among the nations that supply the New World's "unearned increment" of population—if we may so call it. The postscript on Banks and on Railways is important, and so is that on Berlin, and on the German military establishment (brought down to March 3). Something new had to be said about Bacteria, Cocaine, and Earthquakes, though no mention is made of that at Charleston. Bismarck's career is followed to the return of the new Parliament and the triumph of his military measures. Among the new biographical sketches are those of Edwin Arnold, Lord Brassey, James Bryce, Arthur Cayley, Lord Randolph Churchill (pron. "Tschörrtschill"), John Dillon, Barbey d'Aurevilly, Barodet, Bastien-Lepage, Brown-Séquard, Campenon, Sadi Carnot, Admiral Courbet; the sculptor, Hans Baur, the archæologist W. Dörpfeld, Emin Bey, who was born, seems, in 1840, and Cecchi, the Italian African explorer. The omission of Boulanger from the main work is now repaired with great particularity, and, among other interesting items, we find mentioned his representing the French Government with much tact at our Yorktown celebration in 1881. It is also not forgotten that at one of his own national festivals in Paris he rode a horse circus-trained to keep step to the music. This general is a month younger than President Cleveland, who also enters the Supplement by a clear right. Other new American names are Dr. George M. Beard and G. W. Cable; W. H. Dall is continued; and Mr. Beecher's death is recorded. The insertion for the first time of Beverly, Mass., must have a psychic connection with "the Beverly incident."

LECKY'S ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—I.

A History of England in the Eighteenth Century. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky. Vols. V. and VI. London: Longmans; New York: Appletons. 1887.

LECKY occupies a peculiar position among the living writers of England. He stands forth

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among them as the first historical essayist of the day.

The aim of this notice is to explain and justify this assertion; to show our readers why it is that Lecky is hardly an historian in the sense in which that expression can be applied to writers such as Macaulay, Freeman, Gardiner, or Stubbs, and why it is that, among the class of essayists, Lecky has claims to the very highest rank. The matter is worth insisting upon, because any mistake as to our author's true position is certain, in the long run, to produce an under-estimate both of his singular gifts and of his excellent work. His book, judged of as a systematic account of England during the eighteenth century, is open to criticisms of which no one, we suspect, would more readily admit the justice than Lecky himself. The same book, looked upon as what it is—a series of essays on remarkable features in the history of England during the eighteenth century—is above praise.

Let our readers consider, first, the negative side of our criticism on Lecky and his work. He can hardly be said to have produced a systematic and complete account of the age with which his volumes deal. In intellectual power, in literary art, in interest, and in insight, Lecky's 'History of England in the Eighteenth Century' is infinitely superior either to Lord Mahon's 'History of England' or to his 'Life of Pitt.' But a student who wished merely to learn the facts of English history for the period which the earlier writer's works cover, would find them a more useful manual than Lecky's six volumes. If his 'History of England,' indeed, be regarded as an attempt to record systematically the events of the times to which it refers, the book will inevitably be found unsatisfactory. It errs in the way both of defect and of excess. Many things which the reader may wish to learn, he will find are omitted, or at any rate touched upon but hastily. Nowhere, for example, will he discover such an account of the rebellion of 1745 as is provided by Lord Mahon or by Burton. Other topics are treated of with what the ordinary student may consider inordinate detail. The religious legislation of the Whigs, the effect of gin drinking, the Marriage Act of Lord Hardwicke, the religious revival, and the rise of Methodism are, to be sure, subjects full of importance and of interest. But any one who takes up Lecky's book under the idea that it is a "history," in the ordinary sense of that term, will be a good deal puzzled by the excessive prominence given to these and other subjects which lie rather on the by-paths than on the main road of English progress. No one, again, can doubt that by far the most important chapters in Lecky's work are those which deal with Ireland, and no one can also doubt that these chapters, of which every word is of value, are of such length as to spoil the literary symmetry of any work which should aim at being in reality what Lecky's book is in name—a history of England. If it were described as a 'History of Ireland during the Eighteenth Century, accompanied by reflections on contemporary events in England,' the description would hardly be a misnomer; but the accurate way of defining Lecky's work is to term it, as has been already suggested, a set of essays on English and Irish history during the eighteenth century.

The result of our reflections will be exactly the same if, instead of dwelling on the character of Lecky's book, we glance for a moment at his own gifts as an author. In several of the qualities which are essential to historians of the highest class, he is, it must be frankly admitted, deficient. He has little or nothing of that consummate power of narration which is, in truth, the rarest of all Macaulay's wonderful talents. Lecky has not that fatal skill in producing striking pictures by means of which Froude interested the world in volumes of historical, or, according to some critics, of unhistorical romance, which are certainly quite as remarkable for the confusion with which Froude tells his story as for the effectiveness with which he paints certain episodes of his tale. Nor does Lecky claim (except, indeed, as regards Irish history, and the exception is one which should be always borne in mind) to be one of those historical writers, such as Mr. Gardiner, whose forte lies in research. His conclusions rest mainly upon secondary rather than on primary evidence. Our meaning will be well understood by any one who reads with care Lecky's chapters on the history of France before and during the Revolutionary era. The system on which he has worked has clearly been to read the best modern writers upon the Revolution, such as Taine's 'Ancien Régime,' Chérest's 'La Chute de l'Ancien Régime,' De Tocqueville's 'Ancien Régime,' and the like. He has also studied the leading French writers of the eighteenth century, but he has not examined the mass of documents, old and new, which must be investigated by any one who undertakes to write about the French Revolution in the same manner in which Mr. Gardiner is writing about the Great Rebellion.

Let us not, however, be misunderstood. No blame whatever attaches to Lecky for his mode of working. It is a vain idea, and is likely, indeed, to become a dangerous delusion, that no man can write with advantage about past events who does not himself go back to the original authorities. This notion, should it once become current, would make it impossible for any man to utter any reflections upon (say) the French Revolution who had not spent years in a kind of research for which not one man in ten thousand has either the means or the time. It would, further, make absolutely futile the labors of men such as Taine or De Tocqueville; their toil would be thrown away if every follower were bound to verify their conclusions for himself. Lecky, in collecting together the conclusions arrived at by the writers who can speak with authority on the causes of the French Revolution, has done good service, and here, as throughout all his writings, he has exhibited admirable candor and admirable good sense in his mode of referring to his authorities. He could, by pursuing a common method of citation, have loaded his notes with references which, while they unduly magnified the writer's claim to speak from original documents, would have rendered it impossible for his readers to learn who were the authors on whom Lecky really relies, and whom an ordinary student would find it best to consult. Lecky's frequent and utterly unpretentious references to books to be found in ordinary libraries are a real boon to students in want of knowledge. Any one who wished, for example, to learn what the best of modern thinkers think about the history of France during the last century, could hardly do better than take Lecky's twentieth chapter and consult for himself the works referred to in our author's notes. A student who took this course would derive from Lecky's pages a kind of guidance equally unattainable from an essayist who, like Macaulay, gives in his essays no references whatever, and from an author who, like Buckle, crams the notes to the overgrown essays which he is pleased to call a history, with references that testify at once to the voracity of the writer's literary appetite and the scantiness of his historical judgment. But while the method adopted by Mr. Lecky is in its way worthy of praise, it is, we must bear in mind, the method of an essay writer, not of an historian. We come round, therefore, to the conclusion suggested by the nature of his work, that he is in reality an historical essayist.

When, however, it is clearly understood that Lecky writes essays on portions of history, and does not in reality produce, except as regards Ireland, anything like a complete historical work, the most has been said which any candid critic can feel called upon to say, not in detracting from the merit, but in defining the exact character, of Lecky's work. In his own style of composition (and it is work of a very high order) Lecky is a master. His easy and flowing style has contributed, no doubt, to his popularity, but is the least of his merits. He has a keen eye for the interesting and important features of his period. If he lacks that power of telling a story which is an historian's primary gift, he has the capacity for grouping together a mass of facts bearing on a given topic which is preëminently the talent of an essayist. There runs, moreover, a unity of thought through all the otherwise somewhat disconnected chapters of his history. Our author is, consciously or unconsciously, preoccupied throughout this book—as, indeed, in every work he has composed—with one theme, viz., the progress of opinion and of moral convictions. His 'Spirit of Rationalism in Europe' first made him widely known to the English public, and it is hardly an exaggeration to assert that the topic treated of in that book is in reality the topic which is treated of in the 'History of England in the Eighteenth Century.' If there be any exaggeration in this statement, it lies in this, that Lecky's 'Leaders of Irish Opinion, though little known till its author became famous from his treatise on 'Rationalism,' treats of Irish history, and that Lecky's interest in the development of beliefs has always been equalled by his keen interest in the history of Ireland. It is, however, characteristic of his genius that two apparently distinct lines of thought are with him blended together. Investigations into the history of Ireland are, in his mind, closely connected with the historical growth of those beliefs or ideas whose development makes up the history of opinion. Nor is it fanciful to conjecture that study of Irish history has enabled Lecky to perceive, and to make clear to his readers, how closely speculative dogmas at once influence and are influenced by the social and political facts which are the main subjects of historical investigation.

In any case, no one will do justice to Lecky's work who does not note the admirable skill with which he has brought together masses of facts illustrating aspects of the eighteenth century that are often forgotten; and especially those aspects of that age which illustrate the development of opinion. The result is, that there are at least a score of subjects about which far more may be learned from our author's pages than from the works of ordinary historians. Nowhere, for example, is there to be found a better account of the religious legislation of the Whigs. The subject includes the legal position during the eighteenth century of orthodox Dissenters, of Unitarians, of Jews, of Roman Catholics. No one can read our author's mode of treating it without acquiring not only much information which it is hard to acquire elsewhere, but also without coming to recognize the constantly forgotten fact that the true work of the eighteenth century was the abolition of religious persecution, and that the success with which, in Great Britain at least, the Whigs, in the clumsiest but yet in the most effective manner, made persecution impossible, is the main glory of their policy. Not a few critics on this side the water will question the soundness of the views put forward by Lecky with regard to the feelings prevalent in England and in America during the War of Independence. Yet persons who dissent from many of his conclusions will admit that few English writers have given, in a comparatively short

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space, a better account of the contest between Great Britain and her colonies; that few persons have attempted to deal with a difficult subject in a fairer spirit; and that no one has done more than Lecky to bring into view aspects of the contest which, for one reason or another, are likely to be overlooked.

His chapters on French history, which form a considerable portion of his last two volumes, are, we must frankly avow, not, in our judgment, quite equal to the best part of his work. Speculations on the causes of the French Revolution deal with matter of such almost limitless extent that they do not admit of being compressed within the bounds of an essay. But here, as elsewhere, Lecky's skill in illustrating sides of a great subject which have received inadequate attention, is very noteworthy. His account of the struggle between "Parliaments" and the French Crown forces upon Englishmen ideas as to French history which are concealed from view both by the platitudes of Alison and the poetry or rhetoric of Carlyle. It is, for example, perfectly clear to any reader of Lecky that, very shortly before the outbreak of the Revolution, the French Crown appeared at any rate to have achieved a marked triumph in a conflict with the only power which had of recent times attempted to limit the royal authority. It becomes also clear that the Parliaments, with whose struggles against despotism Burke sympathized, had no real hold on the affection or veneration of the French people. The error is noteworthy, for it is merely an example of the mistake which vitiated Burke's views as to French affairs. Genius and insight showed him many things which were concealed from ordinary men; but his sympathy with what may be called aristocratic freedom made him misunderstand both the hatred of France for the *ancien régime*, and the true strength of the French Crown. If Louis XVI. could have become the leader of the people in the attack on the privileges of the *noblesse*, he might probably have ended his career as the most powerful of French monarchs. Lecky's statement that "the French Revolution, though undoubtedly prepared by causes which had been in operation for centuries, might still, within a very few years of the catastrophe, have been with no great difficulty averted," will strike many readers as paradoxical. Our own belief is that the words, taken in the sense in which our author uses them, are profoundly true. The past, in the case of nations, as of individuals, is of course irrevocable. In one sense, therefore, all speculations as to what might have been are vain; but the science of hypothetics, as it has been termed, has its legitimate sphere, and the assertion that the appearance of a remarkable ruler, or even of an energetic ruler, on the French throne could not have averted the destruction of the monarchy, is, be it remarked, at least as hypothetical an assertion as the conclusion that "If a Henry IV. or a Frederick the Great had then mounted the throne, or if Louis XVI. had found for his Minister a Richelieu or a Pitt, a Cavour or a Bismarck, France would never have drifted into anarchy"; and no one who studies our author's pages can deny that a good deal of evidence is given in support of what may sound a startling conclusion.

The essay, if we may use the expression, on which Lecky has bestowed, it may be suspected, the greatest labor, is that on the character of Pitt. He writes on this subject at considerable disadvantage, for it is impossible not to compare the opening chapter of Lecky's fifth volume with Macaulay's "William Pitt"—an article which a very severe critic of the historian has pronounced the best of Macaulay's Historical Essays. From such a comparison Lecky is certain in some respects to suffer; but we are by no means sure that the two writers, though at first sight differing greatly from each other in their mode of treating their subject, and in the conclusions at which they apparently arrive, do not really set off each other's merits, and at bottom suggest to the reader a very similar opinion as to Pitt's strength and Pitt's weakness. The conclusion they both come to (though the conclusion is expressed in very different words) is that Pitt was the greatest Parliamentary leader whom English history has produced. They both dwell on the same virtues and also on the same defects. Macaulay, after his manner, expresses his opinion of the great Minister in the form of exaggerated antithesis. His language may certainly be read—though we doubt whether this is the true reading—as expressing the belief that Pitt's later career was inconsistent with his career before the outbreak of the Revolution. Yet if we allow for the effect of Macaulay's style, it is pretty plain that he felt that, in all his course of action, Pitt was consistent with himself. "The charge of apostasy is grossly unjust. A man ought no more to be called an apostate because his opinions alter with the opinions of the great body of his contemporaries, than he ought to be called an Oriental traveller because he is always going round from west to east with the globe and everything that is upon it."

Lecky writes of Pitt, on the other hand, with studious moderation, and attempts with characteristic fairness to estimate with impartiality not only his character, but the results of his policy in the department of legislation, of finance, of foreign affairs. Lecky also perceives, what Macaulay often allows himself to forget, that no man whose character is worth study is ever radically inconsistent with himself; it is allowable to a satirist to resolve human nature into a series of antitheses, but not to an historian. Yet in the end Macaulay and Lecky arrive at the same result. The powers which made Pitt great in Parliament, involved or implied limitations which made him fail in achieving results adequate to the greatness of his position and the height of his ambition.

Though, further, in one sense the most resolute of men, he exhibited throughout life a readiness, very characteristic of the Parliamentary leader, to surrender even the great objects of his policy when either King or Parliament offered strenuous opposition. This trait is brought by Lecky into marked prominence. It is one which becomes of great consequence when we consider the policy which culminated in the Act of Union with Ireland. Meanwhile, few things are more valuable in our author's estimate of the great Minister than his reference to the judgment passed on Pitt by Coleridge. We must allow for the bias of party feeling, but when every allowance is made, the article in the *Morning Post* of 19th March, 1800, contains more criticism which is worth remembering than any analysis of Pitt's character with which we are acquainted:

"Not the *thing* on which he was speaking, but the praises to be gained by the speech, were present to his intuition. Hence he associated all the operations of his faculties with words, and his pleasures with the surprise excited by them. . . . He was always full grown; he had neither the promise nor the awkwardness of a growing intellect. . . . That revelry and that debauchery which are so often fatal to the powers of intellect, would probably have been serviceable to him; they would have given him a closer communion with realities, they would have induced a greater presentness to present objects."

This want of "presentness to present objects" is the weakness of the whole class of intellects which find their best representative in the genius of Pitt. It is no small service to the public that the greatest of living historical essayists should have directed attention to the subtlety of Coleridge's forgotten essay.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Yoke of the Thorah. By Sidney Luska. Cassell & Co.

The Revolution in Tanner's Lane. By Mark Rutherford. Edited by his Friend Reuben Shapcott. London: Trübner & Co.; New York: Putnams.

Zury: The Meanest Man in Spring County. A Novel of Western Life. By Joseph Kirkland. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Theophilus Trent. Old Times in the Oak Openings. By Benj. F. Taylor. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.

Who is John Noman? By Charles Henry Beckett. Cassell & Co.

The Romance of a Letter. By Lowell Choate. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

Juanita. A Romance of Real Life in Cuba Fifty Years Ago. By Mary Mann. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

Lights and Shadows of a Life. By Madeleine Vinton Dahlgren. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

The Tragedy of Brinkwater. By Martha Livingston Moodey. Cassell & Co.

7 to 12. A Detective Story. By Anna Katharine Green. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Forging the Fetters, and Other Stories. By Mrs. Alexander. Henry Holt & Co.

Between Whiles. By Helen Jackson. Boston: Roberts Bros.

A Humble Romance, and Other Stories. By Mary E. Wilkins. Harper & Bros.

Told at Tuxedo. By A. M. Emory. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A Week Away from Time. Boston: Roberts Bros.

It would be hard to find two novels differing more in treatment, and at the same time producing a more similar effect, than 'The Yoke of the Thorah' and 'The Revolution in Tanner's Lane.' In both there is a study of character developing under the influence of strong tradition; further than this, however, no absolute resemblance can be pointed out. There are even absolute differences. Sidney Luska tells his story rapidly—sketching a bold design with a few bold strokes, sometimes passing a turning-point with a sentence, and sometimes, unfortunately, lingering for pages over a mood. He has been always, in his earlier novels, dangerously near sensationalism. In this one he has passed the line, and has probably settled the question as to what rank of authors he will eventually join. He still writes of the Jews and of New York city, but his attitude towards the former has apparently changed somewhat, and no one will now think of putting him on the same plane with George Eliot, or of confusing his interested curiosity and close observation with her sympathy and sentiment. We say his attitude has apparently changed; but we fancy that it is only in appearance, and that the baldly realistic picture of the Koch household, with all its vulgarity and wealth, even when placed beside the graceful, earnest one of Mrs. Peixada, marks only a natural transition from one to another phase. The real hope for Sidney Luska which one sees in this novel is this prospect of a widening horizon; for it is useless to try and disguise the fact that 'The Yoke of the Thorah' shows a distinct falling off from the writer's other novels in almost every particular. But, with a fuller recognition of the catholic breadth and true scope of fiction, one feels confident from the promise which this young writer has given, that he might—by avoiding cheap claptrap and jack-in-the-box sensationalism—do much better work than any which has yet come from his pen.

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It is the feeling of disappointment with the author for not reaching the full height which, it seems to the reader, his capabilities might have enabled him to attain, that causes one involuntarily to compare 'The Revolution in Tanner's Lane' with 'The Yoke of the Thorah.' The leading character in each of the novels is a man whose love runs counter to his religion. Elias Bacharach, the young Jewish painter who believes in the law of his race, madly in love with a Gentile, and Zachariah Coleman, a hard-working printer and a dissenter, mildly, but just as surely, in love with a French girl who scoffs at religion and believes in nothing, are not just similar figures. Yet there is enough which is common to both situations to make a look at them together worth one's while. One wonders first what the result would have been had the writers changed themes; there is such a difference in the styles and methods of developing the stories—the one so full, so hurried, and impetuous, the other so slow and measured. In spite of the overrated authority for the dictum that neatness of style is no manly accomplishment, one cannot help seeing that here at least the style has counted for everything. Nor is it less obvious that the simplicity and unpretentiousness of Mark Rutherford, who, Pendennis-like, stands for the author, is better suited to the purposes of sustained narrative than the vehemence and simulated strength of Sidney Luska. The trouble is that neither has followed the golden mean; if the latter has made too much of his material, the former has made too little. But with all the discursive talk, the multiplicity of incidents and character, and the general diffuseness that make a reader's final feeling towards the 'Revolution' in Tanner's Lane' one of disappointment, there is at the same time a breadth of view which is uncommon and praiseworthy. It is narrowed occasionally by sympathy for the lowly, for Lincoln's "common people"—a feeling which, however human it may be, however noble and unselfish the thoughts that give it rise, is just as warping as any other partisan sympathy.

A far different novel from either of these is Mr. Kirkland's story of Western life, 'Zury,' which is a history, very simply and effectively written, of the hardships undergone by the earlier settlers of Illinois. One cannot praise the work from an artistic standpoint, though abundant evidence of patient care and painstaking correction is not lacking; it covers too large a field to avoid giving the impression now and then of being fragmentary. A writer who endeavors to record a phase of modern life so important and far reaching as the conquest of our great West for civilization, cannot be asked to quibble over analytical subtleties, or waste his words in rounding out the outlines of some character who may play a part in the story. Nor do we find fault with Mr. Kirkland for having recognized wherein lay the true value of his work, and shaping his means accordingly, but rather praise him for the clear-cut, truthful picture which he has given us. One who was not in Spring County when Zury was "niggering" logs, while Lincoln was yet a local politician and Chicago was in her infancy, cannot speak positively of the minor points in such a history; but the internal evidences that the writer knew his subject are plentiful and strong. The process of building up the West is still going on, and the pioneer will soon be crowding the base of the Rocky Mountains. There is only a small difference, we fancy, between the neighborhood which saw Zury's gradual growth from the log-house and the many cruel shifts of poverty to wealth and luxury, and the settlers who are to-day building their sod-houses or hovel-like "dug-outs" in Western Kansas and Nebraska. In both one can see the sorrowful effect which a constant struggle with nature for the mere privilege of living produces—the effect of hardening, coarsening, almost brutalizing the character. One knows that with the wealth and cities which are sure to come, will come also the finer qualities—finer even than endurance and physical courage; but the prospect of a sacrificed generation is therefore none the less gloomy.

Benjamin F. Taylor, who also chooses for his first novel the tempting environment of pioneer life, could study Mr. Kirkland's book with much advantage. 'Old Times in the Oak Openings' is little more than a succession of scenes without life, without human interest, and without the spirit of historical truth. Mr. Taylor has lost the true aspect of pioneer life through a sentimental feeling for the "good old times"—or else the settlers of Michigan had a much easier time of it than did those of Illinois—and has only succeeded in producing a set of clever sketches that are fitter for newspaper reminiscences than for fiction.

If it is disappointing to read a novel that lacks only a little of being entirely good, such as Mr. Kirkland's or Sidney Luska's, it is positively discouraging to read one like Mr. Beckett's 'Who is John Noman?' It is discouraging, that is, to those who have hoped that the business of writing fiction would be improved by getting into the hands of educated people. We have no doubt that Mr. Beckett's standard of literary excellence is high; he certainly shows himself to be acquainted with much of the best in a large range of literature, and in the first part of his story evinces an ability to write soberly and effectively. Up to the pages which introduce the blood and thunder, the horrible murder, the anarchists, and the impossible villain, he takes his reader with him easily enough. One's interest, curiosity, and sympathy are all aroused by the quaint figure of John Noman the youth, and his odd life on the mountain with his odd protector; and there was enough in the figure of John Noman the man, and in the situation which his story had developed, to have sustained one's interest to the end without resorting to the penny-dreadful style.

'The Romance of a Letter' is open to no such objection. It is mild enough for the most delicate nerves, and deals with incidents no more exciting than pleasant love affairs, picnics, and railroad blockades, with the harmless insanity of Dr. Carrol thrown in as a much-needed condiment. If one can avoid smiling at the naïveté of Mr. Choate, at the unconsciousness with which he gives expression to his views of life, and can forgive the recklessness with which he overrides the difficulties in the mechanism of his story, one will be able to read the book in a mood equally serious with that in which it was written. It is unfortunate for Mr. Cheate that the element of humor, which is so necessary an adjunct to a true conception of human nature, should only show itself fortuitously in his work, and when he himself evidently expects it least.

It is true that the element of humor is present in the affairs of life, even the most tragical, and there can be no real or elevating pleasure in reading a story so entirely sad and unrelieved as 'Juanita.' This romance of real life in Cuba fifty years ago, as one learns from an explanatory note, is a combination of fact and fiction, and was largely an outgrowth of Mrs. Mann's impressions of slavery in that island. It is published now after her death, when the reasons which so long kept it from the world no longer exist. One appreciates thoroughly the sorrowful indignation which the cruelties of slavery aroused in the writer, as well as the value of the book as the record of a contemporary observer. But, however timely its publication now may be, coming as it does so close upon the time fixed for the emancipation of the slaves in Cuba, one can only feel that the best time for its appearance has been gone for thirty years or more.

Mrs. Dahlgren's novel some readers have already met with in the pages of the *Brooklyn Magazine*. They will, no doubt, be glad to learn from the preface that the author has been assured by the editor that the story had met with such favor that the magazine was satisfied with its success. Mrs. Dahlgren also has known something of slavery at first hand; yet one could hardly imagine that she and Mrs. Mann had in mind the same institution. Mrs. Dahlgren seems chiefly exercised over the dangers of miscegenation, but writes with such extravagance that one is amused rather than impressed.

Any one who has read even a small amount of detective literature can premise with tolerable closeness what sort of entertainment awaits him between the covers of a book like 'The Tragedy of Brinkwater,' or '7 to 12.' Murders, robberies, clues, impossible coincidences, and all the stock in trade of this branch of the business of fiction writing are unsparingly used. It is to be regretted that there should be such a waste of talent and time simply to catch the wave of popularity which a few remarkable books of this kind have raised.

Mrs. Alexander's popularity is not so hard to understand. The present volume of her stories is a fair example of what Carlyle has expressed as constituting popularity in a man—the man who stands on our own level, or a hair's breadth higher, and shows us a truth which we can see without shifting our present intellectual position. There is no effort necessary to see the drift of these tales; virtue is rewarded and vice punished always at the end in the most satisfactory way. No doubt exists in the mind of the reader as to which characters are virtuous or the contrary; the sympathy and liking are all one way. When the element of interest, both in incidents and situations, is added to this delightful consistency of the characters, there is produced a style of story which one can read, if not with the highest pleasure, at least with something of harmless recreation and satisfaction.

The stories of Helen Jackson touch another chord. 'Between Whiles' is a collection of tales that, with the exception of the first and longest, have already been printed. And they very well stand the test of being half forgotten after a hasty reading in some magazine, and then, years afterward, being read again. In every case the memory of the story, almost as soon as the first sentence is read, comes back in all its entirety, the characters seem like old friends, and there is genuine pleasure in listening to their simple talk and breathing the wholesome odor of their surroundings. The first story, "The Inn of the Golden Pear," was left incomplete at the author's death, and one regretfully wonders what she would have made of the lives of Willan and Victorine. The few chapters which but finish what might be called the first episode are filled at once with strength and subtlety quite beyond anything else in the volume. In spite of the sudden infatuation of Willan, and the quaint romance of a bygone time that would serve ordinarily to give such a tale a tinge of unreality, there is a naturalness, a pervading sense of being close to life and nature, a vigor and grasp, that compels one's interest and admiration. But it is chiefly the purity, the elevation and gentle fervor which throughout these stories disclose their author at her best, and win the hearts of her warmest admirers.

There is but one objection to be made to 'A Humble Romance, and Other Stories': the stories are all too much alike. Here, again, one meets with old acquaintances from the magazines, and cannot but admit that, notwithstand-

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ing their seeming commonplaceness, they are after all worth knowing. The humbleness of Mrs. Wilkin's character, until from meeting with it too constantly it becomes obtrusive, is quite an agreeable reaction from the high life that used to monopolize fiction. Yet one can grow tired of simplicity when it seems forced, full as readily as of impossible lords and ladies.

'Told at Tuxedo' and 'A Week Away from Time' are two examples of the futility of trying to fasten several short and separate stories together with an artificial thread, and, by means of this device, creating an additional and deeper interest in the tales themselves. Especially noticeable is the failure of such an effort when both the stories and the connecting narrative are of so slight a texture and worked out so fragmentarily as are the contents of the thin volume by "A. M. Emory." The way in which an interest in the book has been awakened reminds one of Warrington's manœuvring with the house of Bungay on behalf of "Walter Loraine." 'A Week Away from Time,' which appears without even a *nom de guerre* on the title-page, is somewhat better, inasmuch as there is visible a conscientious effort on the part of the author to attain to genuine excellence both of form and matter. With something more solid than sentimentality, with better models than the lightest of the French school of story-writers, one may expect much better work from this author.

New Lessons in Harmony. By John C. Fillmore. Philadelphia: T. Presser.

Manual of Counterpoint. By Dr. Th. Baker. New York: G. Schirmer.

Lectures on Musical Analysis. By H. C. Banister. London: George Bell & Sons.

MR. J. C. FILLMORE, who, a few years ago, wrote an interesting history of pianoforte music, deserves another word of commendation for attempting, in these 'New Lessons in Harmony,' to make the ideas of the greatest living musical theorist, Dr. Hugo Riemann, accessible to English readers. Mr. Fillmore has "for some time been convinced that the minor scale and minor harmony needed a radically new treatment, based on rational principles, and that the practice of the greatest writers of our time, such as Liszt and Wagner, needs to be accounted for in a much more thorough and satisfactory way, as regards tonality and modulation, than is done by any text-book on harmony heretofore published in English." As Dr. Riemann's work, on which this is based, is intended primarily for teachers, Mr. Fillmore wisely concluded to make the treatise his own by so rewriting it as to make it useful to students; and we must admit that we know no other work in which a musical student can learn so much about harmony in fifty pages of text and examples for exercise. The appendix contains a translation of Riemann's lecture on the "Nature of Harmony," a careful perusal of which will enable students to see clearly the drift of modern speculation in music.

Dr. Baker's 'Manual of Counterpoint' forms a sequel to Prof. Oscar Paul's 'Manual of Harmony,' which Dr. Baker translated a few years ago. He declares that "Prof. Paul is in no way responsible for any opinions herein advanced"; nevertheless, it follows in his lines, and the result is such that Prof. Paul may well be proud of his pupil's achievement. Counterpoint is one of the bitterest pills which those who wish to become creative musicians have to swallow. Dr. Baker, however, has done his best, by means of a clear style, accurate definitions, and the avoidance of over-pedantic rules, to sugar-coat this pill for the pupil. It is to be regretted, however, that he retained the cumbrous apparatus of four distinct clefs for the exercises and examples. The technics of musical composition are difficult enough without adding needless complications. The mediæval idea of art was to make it as technical and as difficult as possible; but the modern idea is different, recognizing the fact that human brain power is limited, and that all the attention claimed by non-essentials is lost for essentials.

If Prof. Banister's 'Lectures on Musical Analysis' had appeared about fifty years ago, they would have been timely and instructive. Like a large part of Grove's otherwise excellent 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' this treatise indicates that, to the older generation of English musicians and teachers, music came to an end with Beethoven and Mendelssohn. Schumann is but once mentioned in Dr. Banister's 370 pages, and Rubinstein, Liszt, Brahms, and Wagner not at all. And on the very first page he makes a statement which completely takes one's breath away: "A composer may originate beautiful ideas, and we then call him a *genius*; but he may not have had the training, or may not possess the *mastery* of his resources requisite to set forth those ideas in the strongest way. Chopin and Dussek—very different composers—were geniuses, but not masters." Chopin not a master! Chopin not able to set forth his ideas in the strongest way! and this the utterance of an English "Professor of Harmony, Counterpoint, and Composition at the Royal Normal College and Academy of Music for the Blind." The English have recently boasted much of their progress in the direction of becoming a musical nation, but this *ex-cathedra* utterance, we protest, shakes one's faith in the reality of it. It is, of course, not necessary to point out that Chopin is the greatest *master* of pianoforte style that ever lived; that, in fact, he created the modern pianoforte style, anticipating the latest improvements in that instrument, and that Schumann, Liszt, Rubinstein, Moszkowski, and all great modern piano composers have followed in the footsteps of Chopin, both in the treatment of the pianoforte and in the structure of their compositions. The piano of the modern romantic school is indeed an entirely different instrument from the piano of the classical school, and therefore calls for a different treatment and style; yet here, in the year of grace 1887, an English Rip Van Winkle thinks the proper way to teach pupils music is to analyze the antiquated artificial sonata form, ignoring all the more natural modern forms that have superseded the sonata on the principle of the survival of the fittest. It is just as if some botanical Rip Van Winkle were to set up a school in which he should teach the artificial Linnæan system.

It is, indeed, a favorite maxim with old music teachers that instruction should at any rate begin with these "classical" models; but this is just as absurd and misleading as it would be to begin to teach botany with the Linnæan system. What interests young pupils and awakens their enthusiasm is to "be in the swim," as it were, of modern music; and, constantly hearing it, they can but feel an aversion to the archaic sonata form; and music teachers, instead of repressing the eagerness of their pupils to throw over their Haydn and Mozart sonatas and take up Chopin and Schumann instead, should encourage it in every way. With Bach the case is different. He was much more modern in style and spirit than Mozart, or even the early Beethoven. And, to come back to Chopin, we say without hesitation that he was a greater *master* of style than Beethoven, and quite as great a genius. Schumann has a clever dig somewhere at the pedants of the Banister variety: "Taste, indeed," he writes of Chopin, "we must concede him, of the finest quality; but of course that is nothing for the theorists; they only search for (forbidden) fifths, and get angry whenever they don't find any. But they could learn many things from Chopin, and above all how to write fifths." "He is and remains the boldest and noblest poet of the time," he writes elsewhere. And in another passage—the most prophetic Schumann ever wrote—he attributes to Florestan (*i. e.*, himself) "the somewhat paradoxical assertion that 'in Beethoven's "Leonora" overture there is more *future* than in his symphonies'—words which might be more properly applied to Chopin's nocturne in G minor, *in which I can see a terrible declaration of war against a whole past.*"

Duelling Days in the Army. By William Douglas, late 10th Royal Hussars. London: Ward & Downey; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1887.

THE author tells us that "duelling is practically dead in England," but he leaves the reader to infer that we are behind the British in doing away with the evil, saying in his preface that "although Colonel Cash of the American Army fought and killed Colonel Shannon of the same service a year or two ago, the practice may be said to be almost as defunct, even in the Southern States of America, as at home with ourselves." The "American Army" is about as indefinite as the European army, or the Asiatic army, but if the author means the Army of the United States of America, we should like him to present his proofs that Col. Cash of that army fought and killed Col. Shannon of that service a year or two ago. We have no recollection of any such occurrence. Duelling in our army has been prohibited under severe penalties by our articles of war ever since their adoption, and has long been practically unknown to the service. It never was as prevalent in our army as out of it.

Our author has not arranged his stories in the order in which the duels took place, nor, in fact, in any order. They are told without any account of the spirit of the times in which the events occurred, and therefore produce the effect of a lecture illustrated by stereopticon views—*with the lecture left out.* It is, however, mentioned incidentally that in 1697 a man, duly tried by the civil authorities and found guilty of "coining false money," was sentenced to die by being "thrown alive into a cauldron of boiling oil." It is true that duelling is a relic of barbarism, but it is hardly worth while to moralize upon the barbarity of it until the makers of civil law get a long way in advance of boiling men to death in oil for counterfeiting.

In some instances the author's grammar is bad, and in some the language is too English for us. For example, we find (p. 117) "although very stringent orders against challenging or carrying a challenge *has*, as a rule, existed in the British army for many years, yet these orders . . ."; page 170, "people in those days were, *we expect*, quite as considerate of themselves," etc.; page 171, "but it was an *awfully* cowardly one," etc.; page 243, "where punch galore came on after supper, and songs and glees bore *famously* its company." But independently of the way these tales are told, it is a question whether they should have been gathered together in cold type. Surely the British army cannot read them without a pang. The author depicts duelling as a common practice for a long time in the British army, not only resorted to in defence of men's so-called honor, but enforced upon officers by their companions for the mere purpose of making the assailed prove that he was not a coward. The pistol and bowie-knife days of our Arkansas and Texas frontiers never much surpassed the brutality that, as appears from this book, has prevailed among the officers of the British army.

Of course, in a book written by an Englishman, relating in any way to the army, the Duke of

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Wellington must figure. In this book, his Grace appears far better as principal in a duel with Lord Winchelsea than as commander-in-chief, administering justice between two of his subordinates in a case growing out of a challenge. Perhaps justice, from a republican point of view, could hardly be expected, as one of the parties was a lord with the rank of cornet, and the other only a gentleman and an officer with the rank of captain. The facts as given are as follows: Lord George Bentinck was cornet in the Ninth Lancers, but, being the son of a duke, "considered that military discipline could never be intended for such as he." He exacted "the utmost reverence from his subordinates," but "objected to pay any respect to his own superiors in the service." Capt. Kerr, who commanded the troop to which Lord George belonged, "was as gallant a soldier as ever drew sword, and a thorough gentleman." "The Captain did his best to teach the young cornet his duty, but his Lordship seemed to feel a pleasure in going quite against the expressed wishes of his Captain," and finally, when on duty upon a field-day, publicly insulted the Captain for correcting him, saying, "Captain Kerr ventures to say on parade that which he dares not repeat off it." According to the usages of the time and the army, this was unbearable; and, lest he be sent to coventry as a coward, Capt. Kerr, when off duty, in due form demanded satisfaction. His Lordship, however, when brought to the scratch, backed out, and the Captain, seeing no other recourse, posted the sprig of nobility as a coward. And now the result. Capt. Kerr, who was only a commoner, an officer, and a gentleman, who had been publicly insulted by his military subordinate on parade, was cashiered by a British court-martial; while the noble dastard who committed the real offence went scot-free. All of this occurred only about fifty years ago, we are assured, under the Duke of Wellington's administration of the British army.

The author says: "There can, in our opinion, be little doubt that, had the man who gave the insult not been the son of a duke, he would have been sent to coventry, and eventually obliged to leave the service." Then, apparently alarmed at his own boldness of speech in a matter touching the aristocracy of England, he falls at once into the apologetic vein, and adds: "We somehow fancy that the Duke of Wellington, who was the commander-in-chief at the time, and who was by no means averse to duelling, would have, in a year or so, reinstated Capt. Kerr to his former position in the army. But, unfortunately, in less than six months poor Kerr died." If the Duke could have reinstated Capt. Kerr, he could have prevented the shameful wrong done to that officer.

La Puissance des Ténèbres. Drame en cinq actes par le Comte Léon Tolstoï. Traduit du russe par Neyroud. Paris: Nouvelle Librairie Parisienne. 1887. 12mo, pp. 239.

THOSE who believed that Count Leo Tolstoi had entirely abandoned literature, must have been startled at a recent telegram that a drama, recently written by him, called "The Power of Darkness," had been forbidden the Russian stage. But the nature of Count Tolstoi is so artistic that, in spite of all that he does and says, in spite of denials and avowals, it was evident that sooner or later he would return to literature, his nature's only true expression. He may work in the fields or make shoes of an evening, but he *must* write. Once before now he has abjured the world and all that gives the world its savor. Twenty-five years ago he retired to Yásnaya Polyána, and devoted himself to educating his peasants, teaching them himself. He forswore novels, and wrote nothing but educational articles and accounts of his school, or short stories for children, all of which fill the fourth volume of his collected works. But in the course of time his duty ended, for he had acted solely from a conviction of duty; his peasants, or at least all the children and all who showed any glimmer of intelligence, were versed in the elements. Children could not be born fast enough to be taught, and literature and the pursuit of game—the Count's great passion—assumed their rights. He produced immediately 'War and Peace' and 'Anna Karénina.' In the present case it is only the form of the return to literature which is astonishing. No one expected a drama, especially after the very powerful, though painful, sketch, 'The Death of Ivan Ilitch,' which was begun in 1884 and finished in 1886. Despite the statement that the publication and sale of this drama have been forbidden in Russia, it appears in the twelfth volume of Tolstoi's works (Moscow edition) as written in 1886, with the title of "The Power of Darkness; or, Once his claws stick fast, every small bird's done for"—the alternative title being drawn from an old Russian proverb. The bird-lime here is sin, and the little bird is the amiable but weak peasant Nikita, still sympathetic, notwithstanding his one great failing, who is hurried from crime to crime, till he expiates all by repentance, public confession, and self-surrender to punishment. As a drama this work, with all its strength, has great faults; as a picture of peasant life, it is in details of conversation and character very lifelike, and we fear only too true morally in its representation of faults and follies. The horrors are, however, too great, for in the first four acts we have two seductions, adultery, incest, robbery, murder, infanticide, with attempt at suicide in the fifth. It is only the dialogue that makes it tolerable. And this lively dialogue, full of proverbs, quaint turns, and picturesque expressions, is exactly what has not been rendered in the French translation, which is so colorless and insipid—skipping as it does the difficulties—as to give a very slight impression of the immense power of the original. Even in its French form, the drama is unfit for representation, and it is impossible to wonder at its being prohibited at St. Petersburg.

As a rule, English or German is far better than French for translating stories of Russian peasants or of Russian middle-class life. Here the character of the religious Akim, a man after the author's own heart, is completely spoiled by the French version of his hesitancies and repetitions—hard enough, it is true, to render into any language, but still possible in English. On the other hand, stories of Russian high life, like 'War and Peace' and 'Anna Karénina,' seem more natural in French than in English, because the characters might have spoken French habitually instead of Russian. In reading a French translation, even though it may really be inferior to an English rendering, one who has lived in Russia has no effort in representing to himself the scene as real and lifelike.

Apropos of these novels, recent translators have committed a little fault (which annoys the reader), owing, perhaps, to a want of personal acquaintance with Russian society. While the Russians give their family names a feminine gender in Russian, they never decline them when transliterating them into a foreign language. Thus, they would always say in French or English "Madam Karénin" and not "Karénina." The Poles, on the contrary, who use Roman characters, retain the feminine ending on their cards.

It ought to be mentioned, as an evidence of the care with which Tolstoi's works have been edited, apparently by some member of his family, that a *variant* is printed of four scenes in the fourth act of "The Power of Darkness." The same thing has been done in some other cases, and notably in the fragment of "The Decembrists," where two variants are given.

Here and There in Yucatan. Miscellanies. By Alice D. LePlongeon. J. W. Bouton. 1887.

THIS little book may be deemed a supplement of personal narrative and chatty disquisition, appended to the writer's more important work on 'Yucatan: Its Ancient Palaces and Modern Cities.' It is a collection of articles which have been contributed to various periodicals by the accomplished authoress, and which she has been induced by "the request of friends" to bring together for preservation. It must be said that the request has been better justified than is usual in such demonstrations of friendly partiality. The sketches, though slight, have the merit of conveying much interesting information in a sprightly and attractive style. They relate, for the most part, not to the mainland of the peninsula, but to the outlying islands, which Dr. and Mrs. Le Plongeon visited in the course of their indefatigable researches. We learn much about the turtle-catchers, the salt-gatherers, the tobacco-growers, and other occupants of the picturesque islands of Mugeres and Cozumel, off the eastern coast of Yucatan. There are some descriptions of ancient buildings and other monuments of the former Indian civilization, and some curious narratives of piratical adventures and searches for hidden treasures.

A brief but striking account is given of the Caribs of British Honduras, who still, it is said, retain the habit of sacrificing and, perhaps, of devouring a child in their religious orgies, and, nevertheless, have the repute of being "very honest and harmless, but great drunkards." We are also told of a pigmy people who formerly dwelt along the western coast of the peninsula, and whose existence seems to be proved by the discovery of houses and temples suited for occupants and worshippers less than four feet high. Some of these diminutive creatures are said still to live in the recesses of British Honduras; and the authoress had from an old woodcutter a precise and seemingly truthful account of a visit made by himself and others in 1825 to their place of abode, and the actual capture of one of them, a girl about eighteen years old and not quite three feet high, who afterwards escaped from her captors.

There is a chapter on "the lost literature of the Mayas," repeating the well-known story of the destruction by the fanatical Spanish priests of the many books in which the natives had embodied, in their hieroglyphics—perhaps partly alphabetical—what they had retained of the learning and wisdom of their ancestors. While the narrative, as here told, will renew the reader's regret at this irreparable loss, it cannot fail to inspire him with some alarm at the attempt which is to be made to partly supply it. A few of the Maya books, or codices, as they are now termed, have been rescued, and one of them, the celebrated Codex Troano, is undergoing translation by Dr. Le Plongeon, whose superiority to all other investigators in this line is naturally and laudably assumed by the faithful partner of his labors. The wild vagaries of interpretation with which that other estimable and untiring archæologist, the Abbé Brasseur de Bourbourg, disfigured his otherwise valuable works on Central America, are to be repeated, and perhaps even exaggerated.

Dr. Le Plongeon, we are told, finds that this "Troano manuscript" is mainly "a work on geology and ethnology." Its author "appears to have had a knowledge of the various strata of which the crust of our planet is composed, for he has painted them of different colors." There are also "records of cataclysms by which the face of

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the earth has more than once been changed." And we are further assured that "the story of the disappearance of a great island, Plato's Atlantis, in the Atlantic Ocean," is confirmed by this amazing authority. The news will be a delight to Mr. Ignatius Donnelly, and a source of dismay to other students of American archæology, who had hoped that we were well rid of this preposterous cataclysmic nonsense. It would be unfair, however, to judge either the writings of Mrs. Le Plongeon or the researches of the learned and worthy Doctor by these unlucky attempts at the unriddling of mysteries in which the best intellects are apt to be muddled.

The present work, saving perhaps a few rather flimsy disquisitions near the end, will be found a thoroughly readable volume, with much in it of novel and instructive, and with some stories of exploring trials and hardships, stoutly borne, which add not a little to our respect for the heroine and hero of the narrative.

The Nibelungen Lied, or Lay of the Nibelung. Translated from the German by Alfred G. Foster-Barham. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

THE revival, both in Germany and in countries foreign to it, of interest in the mythology involved in the great German epic and in the operas of Wagner's "Nibelungen-Ring" has awakened a desire in England and America for fresh literature upon this subject. A few readers with philological aims are eager for the old texts of the *Lied* and of the earlier MSS. upon the same themes; others, especially students of general literature, would prefer the nearest English equivalent for the original epic; while perhaps a far greater number desire an easy, popular version of the story, with some hints upon its ethnological bearings and its literary merits.

The press has begun to meet these requisitions upon it, and Carlyle's reproach that his race knew the 'Nibelungen Lied' only by name, bids fair soon to cease to be true. Mr. Foster-Barham's translation will undoubtedly contribute its quota to bring this about. Yet his work looks more like a good grade of literary amusement than like a well-directed effort to satisfy any public demand, or to promote the general culture. The philologist finds not a word for him, the translator not having so much as informed him from what text he has made his version. Nor is the mythology or the romance of the subject made clearer than the *Lied* itself makes them. This translation preserves the matter and method of the rhapsodist, made a little more coherent by the unknown middle-age poet, but obscured by traditions, customs, and historical correspondences, which are so unfamiliar that the mere substitution of English words in the Middle-High-German poem "brings over" to us but half of what the epic originally conveyed to those who were living in the atmosphere of its mythology, and who from infancy had listened to fragments of its story.

The literary form of the poem realized in English seems to have been the full aim of the translator. He has given us the thirty-nine "adventures" of the original, and has approximately copied the verse and the strophe, though the peculiarity of the extra foot in every fourth line Mr. Foster-Barham has quietly dropped from his metre. Yet his lines will not read smoothly, even at their best, except to those who carefully observe the cæsural pauses. German publishers often print this epic with a conspicuous break in the midst of the lines, to assist the reading. English readers have still greater need of this help.

A metrical version of the "Nibelungen Lied" is an undertaking full of difficulty for the translator; and the critic may be forced to say the work has been well done, even though he can easily raise well-grounded objections to many of the English lines. Such is the case with this translation. The diction is pleasant, the version is free and loose—and, perhaps, necessarily so. But the translation should be more complete. It is not fair to expect all English readers to know, or to have the means of translating, such words as *Degen*, *Ritter*, and *Recke*, both singular and plural forms. Nor does the great metrical convenience of *Fiedel*, *Fiedelmann*, *Fiedelere*, and *Fiedelspieler* justify thrusting these terms upon total strangers to them. "Nibelungen" has been mistaken for the genitive singular in the translation of the title of the poem. Wagner's title, "Der Ring des Nibelungen," may have led to this error.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atkinson, E. The Margin of Profits. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Banister, Prof. H. C. Musical Art and Study. London: Geo. Bell & Sons.
Browning, R. A Blot in the 'Scutcheon, and Other Dramas. Edited by W. J. Rolfe and Heloise E. Hersey. Harper & Brothers.
Butler, Dr. J. S. The Curability of Insanity. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 60 cents.
By the Way: An Idler's Diary. Boston: Clarke & Carruth.
Dodd, Anna B. The Republic of the Future. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Encyclopædia Britannica. 9th ed. Vol. xxii. Sibbald—Szolnok. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Gautier, T., and Mérimée, P. Tales before Supper. Brentanos. 50 cents.
Geraldine: A Novel. Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.

"Every child in America should have them."—*New England Journal of Education.*

"The 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia' should be in every juvenile library."—*From a Report of the Connecticut Board of Education.*

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AGNES SURRIAGE. By E. L. Bynner. $1.50.
PROSE PASTORALS. By H. M. Sylvester.
THE HOUSE OF THE MUSICIAN. By Virginia W. Johnson. A Venetian romance.
THE CRUISE OF A WOMAN-HATER. 50 cents. A brilliant new sea story.
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